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ABSTRACT

The proceedings include sections on: keynote addresses (Paul A. Miller, Jon Van Til); who volunteers and why, the impact of volunteerism; evaluation, research design, and methodology; preparing volunteers and those who manage volunteers (evaluation of recruiting and training procedures, the effect of the student volunteer experience, effectiveness of administrator training programs, and preparing volunteers and administrators of volunteers); recommendations from curricula interest areas; and closing comments. (MSE)

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PROCEEDINGS

ROLES OF COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES
IN VOLUNTEERISM

APRIL 25-29, 1977

SPONSORED BY

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VIRGINIA POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTE AND STATE UNIVERSITY

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INTRODUCTION

Volunteerism has received widespread interest in nearly all sectors of society. This includes public and private institutions; medical, social and psychological services; educational institutions; and corporate enterprises. Any phenomenon with such disparate and prevasive impact deserves serious and systematic study. However, it has been only relatively recently that volunteerism has become the subject of serious investigation. As a result, institutions of higher education have rarely included coursework, degree programs, or encouraged research into volunteerism. This has been true even when the role of volunteers in specific programs was quite prevalent as in 4-H extension work or recreation programs. This oversight may be due, at least in part, to a relative lack of familiarity and uncertainty within college and university missions about what these institutions can do to foster volunteerism.

The conference was held April 25-29, 1977 on the campus of Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University. University faculty from several departments and colleges participated in organizing the conference. The purpose of this conference was to explore the possible roles which colleges and universities could assume relative to volunteerism. The results of this exploration are presented in these proceedings. They include examinations of volunteerism from several perspectives. This includes discussions of definitions of volunteerism, examination of research issues, recruiting, training procedures, and evaluation processes. These ideas represent 51 different authors from 21 states and the District of Columbia. It is our hope that this exchange of ideas will foster the growth of university and college involvement in volunteerism.

KEYNOTE ADDRESSES

THE REVIVAL OF VOLUNTARY IMPULSE

Paul A. Miller
President
Rochester Institute of Technology

Preface

My job today is to help with a starting point for thinking about volunteerism and my text picks up what is here and there apparent, a kind of recrudescence, or a springing up afresh, of the voluntary impulse in society. My concern is for human, affective, emotional acts, those moments when people care for one another or when they commit themselves to reform or common interest. In a way, I will speak of non-technology, without which technology is of little use indeed.

Braudel, in his classic historiography of the Mediterranean, contrasts the histories of events, of institutions, and of cultural change. One similarly may so review the voluntary association. For my part, since we will be specific in our other papers, I will address the more general view, those long-time shifts of the doctrine of voluntarism and the practice of volunteerism.

Voluntary associations, and the social impulse which sustains them, are taken up by analysts and artists as among the products of the subjective part of social life. Their function balances against the more overt or rational forms of economic and political life. They emerge mostly from intimate institutions like the family, the kindred group, the neighborhood, and the religious community. Voluntary groups are frequently portrayed as a form of the family spirit loosened within the impersonal community, as when Lewis Mumford spoke of an authoritarian technology (powerful, formal, and unstable), and, then, somewhat its opposite, a democratic technology (weak, informal, yet resourceful and durable).

Nowhere is this contrast so marked as in the United States. Tocqueville would record in 1835 in his Democracy in America:

> "The citizen of the United States is taught from infancy to rely upon his own exertions . . . In the United States, associations are established to promote the public safety, commerce, industry, morality, and religion. There is no end which the human will despairs of attaining through the combined power of individuals united into a society."[1]

Generations of writers, before and since Tocqueville, have introduced into our thinking two kinds of citizenship--the one imbedded in the intimate social life of the family and neighborhood; the other shaped by allegiance to formal organization and state. The tension between these two forms of citizenship has long continued as a major theme of artists, scholars, and social philosophers.[2] They have frequently concluded that progress itself seems inevitably to weaken the very basis of spontaneous, personal, and informal activity. Indeed, many of the major architects of western thought--among them, scholars like Hegel, Tocqueville, Burke, Coleridge, Toennies, Carlyle, Durkheim, Weber, and Simmel--despaired of what they detected as the inverse relationship between modern forms of progress and human happiness.[3]

This type of analysis has continued into the modern update of criticism that is heard about technological society. For, as Polanyi, Ellul, and other such critics insist, technological society has a life of its own; it dominates and shapes to its own ends everything in its path--education, industry, family, neighborhood, and voluntary association.[4]

Sentimental or primary citizenship, that overlap of what people do at home, at the workplace, and in their neighborhoods, finds its wider impact through the medium of expression which voluntary groups afford; hence, in one way, such groups link these primary roles to those which are necessary for the existence of the state. Until recently, this re-enforcement--within the guild, farm family, and rural neighborhood--accounted for most patterns of mutual aid and security, education, economic exchange, and recreation.[5]

But the institutions which nurture a primary citizenship now frequently conflict rather than support each other. The family is left to manage emotions, frequently collapsing from overdrafts of love. The specialized worker can but imagine the finished product to which his or her effort contributes. And the volunteer may become an agency adjunct, sometimes disdainful of family and neighborhood simplicity.

So the roots of a primary citizenship have withered. As a result, youth learn too little about what the community is really like.[6] Further, the gap between civic aspiration and fact has widened, and material progress is absorbed back into the chaos of social and emotional life. And, as we learn, it is an erosion that fails to respond well to intervention of policy and finance.

This clientelization of society absorbs the energies of professional workers. Accordingly, they often hunger for the strategy to add more clients and fail to advance a lasting philosophy of voluntary impulse and association. Such a philosophy, expressed within networks of voluntarism, leads to an understanding of community. To a few highly tentative categories of this philosophy my remarks now turn:

Functions of Voluntarism

Localism and Intermediacy. The voluntary impulse, and the manner in which human association expresses it, stands intermediate between the individual and the more formal agencies of state and society. To be sure, one cannot overlook the importance of creative individualism. However, for the care required for the individual to grow up to the adult forms of human action, intimate contexts, voluntarily established and employed for the most part, guide and stimulate the most individual of acts. They are contexts which are less the result of plan than of spontaneity. We have for too long failed to appreciate how intermediate institutions, close to family and neighborhood, insulate individuals from administration. Such institutions penetrate both mind and character, and, as John Dewey once said, "produce the framework of personal disposition."[7]

Hedonism and Restraint. If voluntary groups intervene to safeguard individuality, they serve also to restrain the individual from self-centeredness, from hedonism, a rise of personal pleasure as its own end. The loss of meaning as traditions weaken and collapse produces as one result the new demand that success in life be measured by enjoyment and self-understanding rather than by work for production or achievement.[8] Thus there is stimulated the quest not only for equality of individual opportunity but for result as well, a movement that has been pointed out as a prime reason for the spread of bureaucratic administration into the very corners of life.[9] But the voluntaristic incentive seems to blunt and diffuse this tendency to hedonism. Even the new groups which grow partly from hedonistic interests (such as Etzioni's "literati," "empathetic groups from the sensitivity movement," and "political activists," not to speak of the communes) all throb to voluntary impluse.[10]

Participatory Democracy. We frequently constrain the meaning of voluntarism to the social and welfare service system. But perhaps the greatest rebirth of the voluntary impulse takes root in those associations which pursue goals of special interest. Our day sees a remarkable expansion of vigorous voluntary movement devoted to ecology, energy, consummerism, communal living, ethnic revival, marriage enrichment, Pentecostal religion, and human potential and fulfillment. These all veer toward institutions of primary citizenship, along with a disinclination toward centralization of organization and government.

Educative Functions. To act as a volunteer is to engage in an educative act, and in a form that differs little from the spontaneous learning which families, workplaces, and community institutions provide. Viewing the practice of volunteerism as a learning system is still not well developed. We under-employ it amid many inflexibilities and limitations in life cycle and work patterns.[11] Thus, for example, American youth, on the whole, remains isolated from both adults and service tasks, and formal schooling, oriented to economic criteria and to the work world, may underwrite a special segmentation of life into distinct chapters for training, work, and retirement. As a result, both the young and the old have insufficient chance to serve voluntarily, whether for human caring or pursuing special interest.

Integration. Voluntary association carries the function of cutting across the divisions of social life . . . sex, age, class, ethnic composition, and occupation. Urban migrants, for example, adjust the world over to city life by voluntary association. Notable also, volunteers in human service agencies tie many economic, political, religious, and ethnic groups into common purpose: they achieve by cooperation what otherwise would be achieved by contest. The challenge is all the greater now as the concentration of economic and manpower resources weakens the cross-cutting effects of diverse groups.[12]

Adaptation. Because of the additive quality of technology, and the not so additive nature of social wisdom, social adaptation is basic to improving the distribution of social goods alongside the more facile distribution of economic goods. Wherever it is observed, this process of adaptation activates a given cultural disposition toward change itself. Associative urges and voluntaristic motives seem always to be present.

Such categories or functions provide a backdrop to the university's manner of cultivating the voluntary impulse. My remarks turn now to three main channels of such assistance--the academic, the technical, and the mission channels.[13]

Services of the University

The Academic Channel. Enhancing the voluntary impulse begins in the classroom, and with teaching, which may be isolated from the caring world and dismayed by the present disappointments of a sizable public--with education as an instrument of equity; with diverse institutions which offer but uniform experiences; with imbalances between educational output and market demand; with the sense of confinement which describes so much of the student attitude about education.

Are not these disappointments influenced by the unreal environment of the institution, its constraint of the voluntary impulse, its emulation of heirarchy, bureaucracy, and unexplained authority? Does not a competition for places and grades corrode and reduce empathy, generosity, and sharing? It seems ironic that the very professions which feature sympathy and caring tend to foster a kind of adversaryship among students, as reports of medicine and law now suggest.[14] Similarly, academic governance too often feeds the alienation of administrators and professors, and, through them, the students.[15]

Universities are in need of more alternative learning environments. Some of these would accent teachers as role models, those who are encouraged to bring the values of caring and sympathy into classroom and laboratory. More team projects will help, especially those which take students and staff together into field tasks. Moreover, an increasingly open academic governance, in which its participants learn better how to cope with new resource distribution tensions, should feature helping relationships toward a discovery of the profound tie between love and learning, to learn again that the deepest and truest relationship in the end, as Lionel Trilling once said, is pedagogic.

The Technical Channel. Colleges and universities influence society by the ideas and artifacts which flood from them into application. In the matter of their own organization and conduct, they orient to the voluntary mode. Thus they can help, by using their own style to create steps to design, test, and adapt forms which voluntary impulse takes. Urban society finds it difficult to identify and share ideas which prove successful. To facilitate such an exchange is among the chief tasks of the university; it reduces also the academy's tendency to unilaterally extend its own effort.

An expensive lesson of recent years is that the best of policy and money and direct administration of services does not assure that social problems are solved; indeed, they may worsen by these interventions. Rather, we need much more testing of designs which feature services indirectly delivered through the channels of family and neighborhood groups. Thus, sentiment does what regulation can never do. That people care about one another, no government can replace by mandate. While greed is everywhere present, the scrutiny brought by those who know each other has long succeeded when the evaluation of strangers has failed.[16]

Employing both local institutions and indirect administration, universities may also help people to revise or restore voluntary association that may have declined. As one example, the weakened re-enforcement occasioned by the loss of the extended family suggests the need of fresh ways by which families may come together to help each other as once happened in societies and home demonstration groups of rural America.

Universities can further emphasize the social bond between family, work, and voluntary service. As in the not infrequent antagonism between workplace and family, workers (as reported for blue-collared males) may disavow volunteerism because they feel that what they do no longer matters: the wellspring of voluntarism itself is therefore depleted. Academic centers can, for example:

- Concern themselves with the issue of how work is elevated as the measure of self-esteem, how a culture is created that is based on the spiritual nature of work, and then how work is withheld from at least a tenth of those who desire it.

- Devise forms of voluntary service for youth, perhaps by re-activating the idea of a National Youth Service Corps.

- Emphasize the tie between lifelong learning, voluntary service, work and leisure.

- Strive to amend the policies, even the meaning, of retirement, discourage the warehousing of older people, welcome them onto campuses and provide them the stage from which to bring service to the surrounding community.

- Counteract the drift to easy recipes for fulfillment, and to other forms of psychic escape, by making social caring more available, real, useful, meaningful, and flexibly a part of the other functions of life.

The Mission Channel. Linking university resources to community projects constitutes the mission channel. It is a complex function because there is normally demanded some form of ideological preference or commitment, which, in voluntary association, is usually to help people or some group become more self-reliant. In the bargain, other groups may be threatened and the seeds of controversy sown. Helping organize farmer cooperatives, as Cooperative Extension once did, is but one example. Academic missions become more difficult in technological society, because voluntary impulse may be restrained and reduced by professional and managerial specialists.[17] Further, what volunteers are taught is in no way value-free; rather, and increasingly, knowledge becomes more and more value-oriented in its use. In the long and short of it, to add strength to voluntarism is to increase individual and group self-reliance, a task that is not without controversy and tension. But it is teaching that must be done, and it will suggest such tasks as follows:

University workers can help volunteers learn how to cope with the mounting flow of information that is so over-laden with crisis. The belief and the technique of turning disagreement into constructive change is everywhere required. Otherwise, volunteers may quit for good when they find themselves too deeply mired in conflict.

They can help volunteers view their service as a chief means to personal learning, especially how to master the arts and honesties of the helping relationship. Volunteers often need to surmount those often secret motives which lead them first into volunteerism--a narrow search for prestige, power, or fellowship, or that which they feel they do not otherwise possess.

Volunteers can be helped to believe in the importance of their function as corrective to a circumstance of modern society where the few are able to communicate to the many but the many are unable to communicate back to the few. Thus, they may be helped to strengthen the integrity of their own citizenship, by learning how better to collect, analyze, store, retrieve, share, and communicate opinion and outlook.

University people can help volunteers learn more about human change, and about the differences between intellectual and emotional responses to it. We can help them, further, to recognize tension and stress, in persons, in groups, between center and field, and, then, how to merge trust (that springs from interpersonal acquaintance) with the skill to define goals that accommodate both individuals and groups.

What is done to enhance the volunteer to both care and to be self-reliant must be emphasized for those who are the professional helpmates to volunteers. Too many professional workers become threatened by the volunteer whose competence is exerted without fear of job or tenure. Many professionals know too well how to screen the views of volunteers, sort them out, divert, or even subvert them. Among the ceremonial dances in professional America, one of them displays the subtle skill of positioning volunteers (like, say, college trustees) with maximum importance but with minimum influence. Instead, the teacher must help limit the mentality that would either absorb or convert volunteerism to its own ends. This hope introduces other observations, which now become the summary, and the underlying themes, of these remarks.

Summary

First, a technologized society now witnesses a recrudescence, a new bursting forth, of voluntary impulse and association.

Second, technologic usage is helpless without the play of the non-technologic dimension--involving values, institutions, voluntary cross-cutting and coherence, sources all of a primary citizenship.

Third, both global interdependence and the service society (in which both provider and client decide the outcomes) demand a civic discipline that balances governmental, industrial, and military power.

Fourth, distributive conflicts over limited resources do not respond to the solution of formal policy and program when the channels of intermediate institutions and associations are withered or ignored.

Fifth, and finally, voluntarism is at the heart of that form of social organization (in developed and developing countries alike) which now rises to challenge the bureaucratic mode; it features horizontal rather than vertical relationships, overlapped group nodes, and networks, decentralized and interlocked power, and sensitive responses to challenge.[18]

To be sure we who reside in the university need to do our studies; but we need also to take part, that is, to say, be volunteers ourselves. Karl Mannheim once said that insight is the core of social knowledge. It is an insight that is gained by going inside the phenomena observed, a participation, as Mannheim said, that generates interest, purpose, point of view, value, meaning and intelligibility as well as bias. The professional task is a fateful one if it cultivates the sources of a primary citizenship so as to assure that the human resource will adjust humanely when the natural resource has either satiated human need or deserted it. This fateful purpose will require that professional people examine carefully the state of their own disposition to care for others, and of no less importance, how to renew the insight that is sharpened best in the center of the action.

NOTES

[1] Alexis de Tocqueville, Democracy in America (Edited by Richard D. Heffner, New American Library, Mentor, New York: New York, 1956 p.198.

[2] I am especially indebted, in my background reading, to Robert Nisbet, Sociology as An Art Form, Oxford University Press, New York, 1976, especially the final chapter, "The Rust of Progress," pp.115-139.

[3] Ibid, p.125; I am also liberally influenced by another of Robert Nisbet's seminal works, his Twilight of Authority, Oxford University Press, New York, 1975, especially his chapter entitled "The Restoration of Authority," notably pp.230-287. It is a chapter that should be read and re-read by every student and participant of the voluntary movement.

[4] Edward Shorter, "Industrial Society in Trouble," The American Scholar, Spring, 1971, pp.330-348.

[5] Robert Nisbet, Twilight of Authority, op.cit.,270.

[6] James O'Toole, "Education, Work, and the Quality of Life," in Lifelong Learners -- A new Clientele for Higher Education, Jossey-Bass Publishers, San Francisco, 1974, pp.12-21.

[7] Robert Nisbet. Twilight of Authority, op.cit.,pp.269-275.

[8] Amitai Etzioni, "The Search for Political Meaning." The Center Magazine, A Publication of the Center for the Study of Democratic Institutions, March/April, 1972, pp.2-11.

[9] Robert Nisbet, Twilight of Authority, op.cit., pp.194-229

[10] Etzioni, op.cit.,p.8.

[11] Elizabeth Douvan, The Caring Society, The Center Magazine, March/April, 1977,pp.26-43.

[12] Peter Blau, "Parameters of Social Structure," American Sociological Review, Vol.39, 1974, pp.615-635.

NOTES (cont'd)

[13] See Michael J. Moravcsik and J.M. Ziman, "Paradisia and Dominatia: Science in the Developing World," Foreign Affairs, Vol.53, pp.699-702.

[14] Elizabeth Douvan, op.cit., p.31-32.

[15] James O'Toole, "Education and Work: Questions About the Purposes of Higher Education," Unpublished Paper delivered at 32nd National Conference on Higher Education, Chicago, March 23, 1977, p.6.

[16] Robert Nisbet, Twilight of Authority, op.cit.,pp.275-287, who describes such a process as the only true "social invention."

[17] Gordon Manser and Rosemary Cass, Voluntarism at the Crossroads, Family Service Association of New York, New York, 1976, pp.69-153.

[18] Virginia Hine, "The Basic Paradigm of a Future Socio-Cultural System," World Issues, Center for the Study of Democratic Institutions," April/May, 1977, pp.19-22.

IN SEARCH OF "VOLUNT...ISM"

Jon Van Til
Rutgers University
Camden College of Arts and Sciences

Today we gather to begin a five-day process of exploration of the roles of colleges and universities in VOLUNTEERISM, and I, a board member of the Alliance for VOLUNTEERISM, present to you a paper prepared in large part jointly with the President of the National Information Center on VOLUNTEERISM.[1] We gather as members of The VOLUNTEER Community, and will surely ponder problems raised in Women, Work, and VOLUNTEERING, The Effective Management of VOLUNTEER Programs and VOLUNTEERS Today.[2] Some of us are members of the Association of VOLUNTEER Bureaus and the Association for Administration of VOLUNTEER Services; we can call upon the assistance of VOLUNTEERS in Technical Assistance.

Among us as well are some who have attended the Lilly Conference on VOLUNTARISM and those who have read chapters on "Democracy and VOLUNTARISM."[3] And among us are those who have attended to the leadership of the National Center for VOLUNTARY ACTION and the policy research of the Association of VOLUNTARY ACTION Scholars. And we know that those scholars tell us that a rather large shelf in many libraries is needed to contain works on VOLUNTARY ASSOCIATIONS.[4]

What are these types of human activity the names we say profess? Are they all the same--volunteering, voluntary action, and voluntary association--

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[1] An earlier draft of this paper was prepared jointly with Dr. Ivan H. Scheier, and we plan to develop a final version for joint publication. The present version, while it benefits from Scheier's colleagueship, is entirely my responsibility. I would also like to thank David Horton Smith, Jean Mayne, Carolyn Harper, and Nancy Rutyna for their reading and comments on the paper.

[2] The titles are those of books by Eva Schindler-Rainman and Ronald Lippitt, Herta Loeser, Marlene Wilson, and Harriet Naylor, respectively.

[3] Chapter 2 of The Volunteer Community.

[4] Three recent volumes of note are:

D. B. Robertson, Voluntary Associations: A Study of Groups in Free Societies (Richmond, Va.:John Knox) 1969;
J. Roland Pennock and John W. Chapman, eds., Voluntary Associations (Chicago, Ill.:Aldine) 1969; and
Constance Smith and Anne Freedman, Voluntary Associations: Perspectives on the Literature (Cambridge:Harvard University Press) 1972.

volunteerism and voluntarism? Or, are there subtle differences in these terms and how we use them that divide us in purpose and act, and influence how we are perceived by others? Are some attracted to us in one name, and repelled when we present another? These are questions I recommend we consider in a conceptual plunge into the word-world of Volunt...ism at the outset of our conference, in the hopes that we may clarify broader aspects of the roles we ourselves and our institutions may play in this field.

This paper aims toward the development of concepts that will be at once uniform and evocative, and may help us both describe and analyze the work in which we are engaged. Growing as it does from an ongoing dialogue with Ivan Scheier, it quite naturally begins where Ivan and I were, and that reflects our own disciplines, experiences, and preferences.

Ivan, a psychologist, began with a model of individual action in a variety of situational contexts, and then moved to extend his model to fully include those collective processes. I, a sociologist, started with a model of social institutions and their contribution to democratic structure, and then sought to draw out implications for individual action and participation.

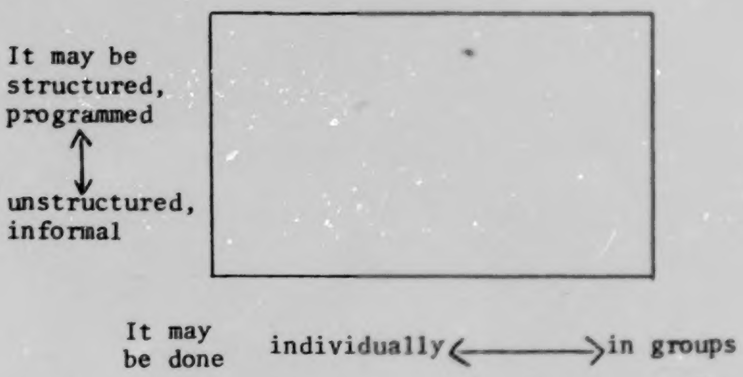
Let's start from the individual side, with that form of action most closely related to our conference's title: VOLUNTEERING. We may begin by identifying VOLUNTEERING as a helping action of an individual that is valued by him or her, and yet is not aimed directly at material gain, nor mandated or coerced by others. Thus, in the broadest sense, VOLUNTEERING is any uncoerced helping activity which is engaged in not primarily for financial gain, or by coercion or mandate. It is thereby different in definition from work, slavery, or conscription. It differs from employment in that it is not primarily motivated by pecuniary gain, although much paid work includes VOLUNTEERING; it differs from conscription in that is is unpaid and uncoerced; and it differs from slavery in that it is not coerced.

VOLUNTEERING may be extended beyond the purely individual, and may also take the form of a group activity. Thus, the informal, spontaneous individual act of the motorist aiding an accident victim, and the formal participation of a volunteer meeting with a parolee as part of an organized program, are both acts of VOLUNTEERING. Actually, there are two dimensions involved here, one of individual to group activity, the second of structured to unstructured activity. As depicted in Figure 1, then, the contexts of VOLUNTEERING involve a range of activities which are all uncoerced, not primarily aimed at financial profit, and which are all oriented toward helping others, and possibly also oneself, as we shall later see.

FIGURE 1

CONTEXTS OF VOLUNTEERING

VOLUNTEERING is helping activity, uncoerced and not primarily aimed toward financial gain:



VOLUNTEERING, as defined here, is similar to, but somewhat less broad in definition than VOLUNTARY ACTION, as defined by David Horton Smith, Richard Reddy, and Burt Baldwin. The latter write: "Individual voluntary action is that which gives personal meaning to life. It is that which one freely chooses to do either for enjoyment in the short term and/or from commitment to some longer-term goal that is not merely a manifestation of bio-social man, socio-political man or economic man" (1972:163). By this definition, individual VOLUNTARY ACTION may include an extra-marital affair, a chess game, or the composition of a book of verse--in short, everything that feels good or meaningful and is not biologically compelled, politically coerced, or paid.

Smith, Reddy and Baldwin go on to note that a more limited conception of VOLUNTARY ACTION may be desirable: "Voluntary action directed at the long-range betterment of society and the general welfare may be the 'best' kind of voluntary action in the eyes of most people." "But", they add, "there are many other important kinds of voluntary action worthy of study and inclusion in the class of voluntary action phenomena, even if not clearly aimed at the general welfare--for example, riots, wildcat strikes, fraternity hazing, shoplifting for 'kicks', 'bingo parties', 'social drinking' and perhaps even watching TV" (1972:167).

With ruthless logic, Smith and his associates bring us to the precipice of a real dilemma. As founders of the Association of VOLUNTARY ACTION Scholars, they recognize that a world of behavior, seemly and unseemly, public and private, is encompassed by the term VOLUNTARY ACTION. But, from the perspective of a leader of, say, the National Center for VOLUNTARY ACTION, it is doubtful that actions such as 'bingo parties' will generate enthusiasm and it is nearly certain that opposition will greet shoplifting, rioting, and extra-marital affairs, even in the light of recent disclosures regarding private life in Washington.

Resolution of the dilemma may be achieved in several ways. First, the concept of VOLUNTARY ACTION may be defined in the narrower way, removing those actions not directed at long-range betterment and the general welfare. Or, the concept can be recognized to be broadly descriptive (or positive) in nature, and not referred to in normative (value-charged, ideological) ways. When speaking of VOLUNTARY ACTION as a good thing, a term with a clear ideological content could be used. Later, I shall suggest that FREEDOM might be as good a word as any for this value.

I think both resolutions should be essayed. If a narrower form of VOLUNTARY ACTION were identified as VOLUNTEERING (that form of VOLUNTARY ACTION aimed toward helping), and if the ideological celebration of VOLUNTARY ACTION were clearly named as FREEDOM, considerable clarity in the terms would be introduced. And the usage seems conventional. Thus, it appears awkward to speak of an individual "volunteering" to drink with the boys at the corner pub, or "volunteering" to spend an evening glued to the tube, while these are clearly forms of "voluntary action" we celebrate as among the joys of freedom.

Some thorny issues remain in defining VOLUNTEERING as that form of VOLUNTARY ACTION that involves helping: helping whom? and how? Smith and his colleagues sought to get around the issue by identifying as the "'best' kind of voluntary action in the eyes of most people" that "directed at the long-range betterment of society and the general welfare." And Herta Loeser gives a central place to "the free giving of one's time and talents for work deemed socially or politically beneficial" (1974:1). Scheier takes a third view, preferring to leave the concept "helping" as a central one, and urging individuals to adapt its meaning as they choose.

I tend to lean to Loeser's and Scheier's positions for a starting point. By focusing on the volunteer's act as involving free giving for work "deemed beneficial", Loeser removes from the volunteer the rather ponderous responsibility of determining that an act is aimed at the "long-range betterment" of society: clearly, much may be of value in the short run of things as well. And, even more importantly, her definition also leaves room for the important recognition that VOLUNTEERING may be very much in the self-interest of the volunteer him/herself. Some forms of VOLUNTEERING begin from an explicit basis of self-help,[5] and almost all forms may contribute to individual goals of career exploration and development, sociability, and other forms of personal enhancement.

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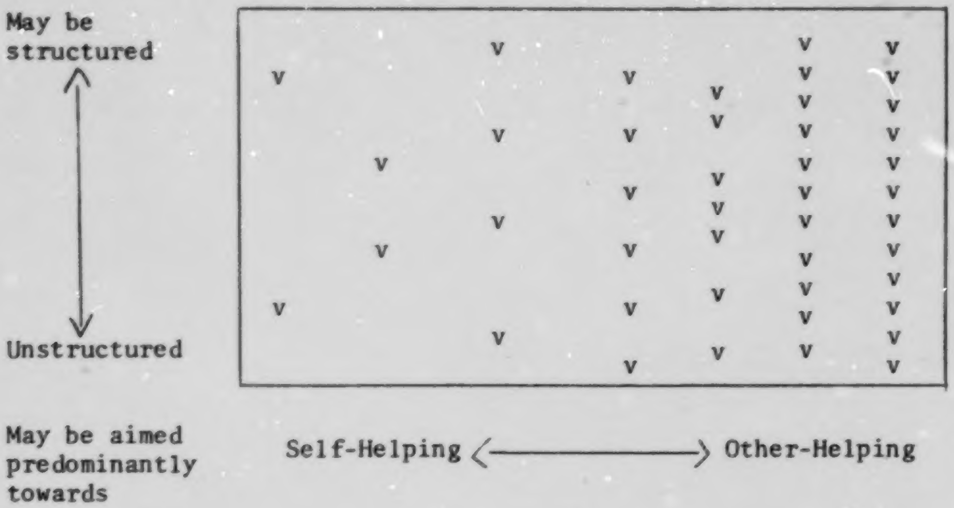
[5] Particularly notable here are the Self-Help and Helping System (SHAH) developed at the National Information Center on Volunteerism under Scheier's leadership, and the prominence of "self-help groups" in American life. The latter phenomenon has recently been probed in special issues of the Journal of Applied Behavioral Science (Vol. 12, no. 3, 1976) and Social Policy (September-October 1976). Smith has noted, as Manser and Cass paraphrase him, that voluntary organizations may be divided into those "whose objectives are primarily 'self-serving' in terms of the affairs and interests of the members, and those primarily 'other-serving' in the sense that their primary goal involves improvement of some aspect of the larger community or society" (Manser and Cass, 1976:41).

I think we can now see rather clearly the distinction between VOLUNTEERING and VOLUNTARY ACTION: VOLUNTARY ACTION is uncoerced, and not primarily aimed toward financial gain; it may be individual or group action. VOLUNTEERING is that form of voluntary action involving helping activities deemed beneficial.

Both VOLUNTARY ACTION and VOLUNTEERING may include actions that are self- and other-helping. Both may include actions that are structured and unstructured. The distribution of these actions, however, finds, that a heavier presence of other-helping activities characterizes VOLUNTEERING. This pattern may be depicted as in Figure 2:

FIGURE 2: THE LOCATION OF VOLUNTEERING (V) IN THE SPHERE OF VOLUNTARY ACTION (uncoerced, not oriented to financial gain).



Now let us fold in a third concept--VOLUNTARY ASSOCIATION. This concept refers to forms of behavior that are organized, and are directed at influencing broader structures of collective action and social purpose. A VOLUNTARY ASSOCIATION is a structured group whose members have united, by this conception, for the purpose of advancing an interest or achieving some social purpose. Theirs is a clear aim toward a chosen form of "social betterment", to use the concept of Smith and his colleagues. Such an association is directed in its aims beyond the immediate enjoyment of fellowship and consummatory group activity; it links the group in some direct way to the larger society.

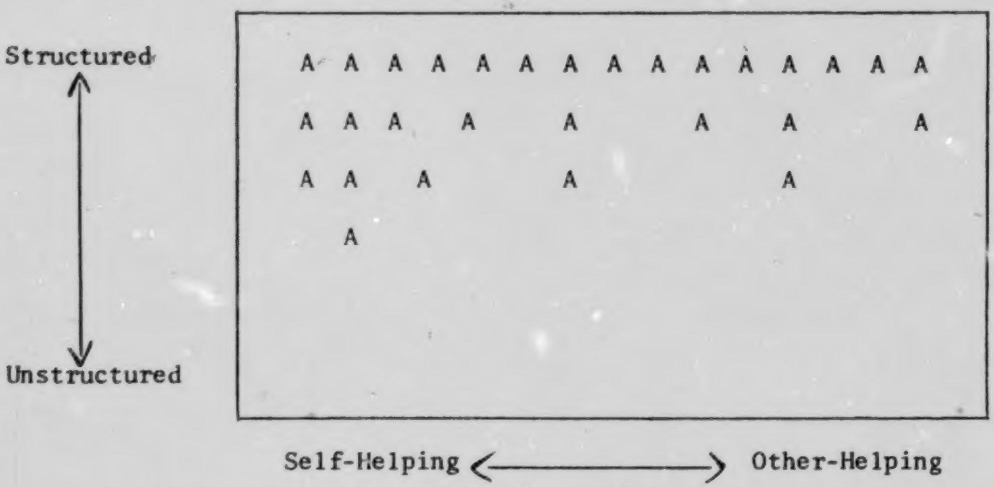
Thus groups like neighborhood associations seeking to restrain crime or to encourage the cleaning of streets are VOLUNTARY ASSOCIATIONS by this identification; so are church-based organizations that seek to provide for school prayer, and civic organizations that seek to improve a city's economic climate; and so are groups of volunteers who hope to reduce family abuse by means of direct service and legislative advocacy. Such organizations are voluntary in a dual sense: much of their human resources are contributed by members as volunteers; and they are non-governmental, non-profit, and non-consummatory--and thus clearly located in the "voluntary sector" of society.

The voluntary sector is invested with a special role in the theory of democratic pluralism, which many scholars have claimed provides a base for the healthy development of political and social democracy.[6] This sector is seen to provide a range of mini-laboratories for democratic action and structure, each of which provides opportunities for individual participation and the expression of a variety of social interests and needs. Eva Schindler-Rainman and Ronald Lippitt explain this function clearly:

> In a pluralistic and fragmented democratic social system, made up of many types of individuals and groups, a major requirement is that the system establish procedures to provide for full communication, for orderly confrontation and conflict resolution, and for the coordination and blending of the energies and interests of the disparate subgroups (1975:6).

Schematically, VOLUNTARY ASSOCIATIONS inhabit that part of the world of VOLUNTARY ACTION that is more highly structured, and ranges from self-helping to other-helping (with a somewhat heavier representation of groups aimed at achieving their own self-interest). While paid staffers are common in this realm, the vast majority of participants are themselves volunteers. Mapping the place of the VOLUNTARY ASSOCIATION in the sector, we see considerable overlap with VOLUNTEERING.

FIGURE 3: THE LOCATION OF VOLUNTARY ASSOCIATION (A) IN THE WORLD OF VOLUNTARY ACTION



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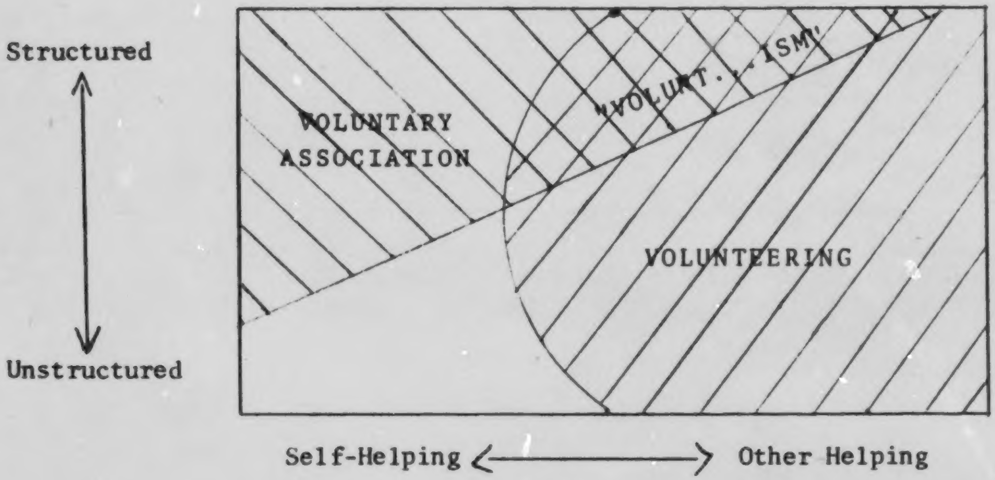
[6] This tradition, derived politically from Madison and sociologically from Durkheim and de Tocqueville, is reviewed briefly in Van Til (1973) and more extensively in McLoughlin and Van Til (1976).

FIGURE 4: THE AREAS OF GREATEST PRESENCE OF VOLUNTEERING AND VOLUNTARY ACTION, AND THEIR AREA OF MOST LIKELY OVERLAP, WITHIN THE TOTAL FIELD OF VOLUNTARY ACTION



Figures 2 and 3 here show the areas of VOLUNTARY ACTION in which VOLUNTEERING and VOLUNTARY ASSOCIATION are most commonly found. And Fugure 4 shows the area of greatest overlap, which lies in the structured sector of VOLUNTARY ACTION midway between the extreme points of self- and other-helping. It is in this area of overlap, which I shall call for now VOLUNT...ISM, that some of the most exciting forms of VOLUNTEERING and VOLUNTARY ACTION are found, and some that have the highest probability of creating positive social change. But I have now lapsed into the language of the normative, and infer an ideological preference. And there is more conceptual work to be done before I can use that language as precisely as I would want.

So I want now to introduce the distinction between normative and positive concepts. Normative concepts are those which lend support, moral or ideological, to a phenomenon. Positive concepts are empirical: they simply identify and define the phenomenon. I want to suggest that VOLUNTARY ACTION, VOLUNTEERING, and VOLUNTARY ASSOCIATION are positive concepts, each of which may be matched with a normative concept that supports and defends it. FREEDOM, VOLUNTEERISM, and VOLUNTARISM may be presented as the normative counterparts, respectively.

Table I presents one way of viewing dimensions of positive-normative on the one hand, and, on the other, the types of individual action I have been discussing. Here, the distinction is drawn between three forms of individual action: freely-willed action, outside bio-social, legal-political, and economic contexts; such freely-willed action aimed toward helping and such freely-willed action aimed toward helping by means of association. We end up, then, with six types of action identified.

First, we find VOLUNTARY ACTION, a descriptive (positive) concept meaning "freely-willed" behavior in certain contexts. As a normative concept, this is the "INDIVIDUAL FREEDOM" celebrated in our Declaration of Independence, the freedom to live our lives as we will--including the freedom to drink, watch television, write poetry, and join with others in association.

Secondly, we find VOLUNTEERING, narrowed from the definition of VOLUNTARY ACTION to exclude those freely-willed activities not aimed toward helping. As a descriptive concept, VOLUNTEERING requires that the individual attach a meaning to his/her act beyond his/her own life and gratification. The normative system or ideology that supports such action is VOLUNTEERISM.

Thirdly, we come to VOLUNTARY ASSOCIATION, freely-willed action aimed toward an identified form social betterment, but also lodged in an associational (organizational, group, agency) setting. Normatively, such voluntary action may be seen to be supported by the ideology of VOLUNTARISM.[7]

TABLE I: THE WORD-WORLD OF "VOLUNT...ISM"

The Action Is	The Concept Is	
	POSITIVE	NORMATIVE
Freely-willed (outside of bio-social, legal-political & economic contexts)	VOLUNTARY ACTION	INDIVIDUAL FREEDOM
Freely-willed (as above) and aimed toward helping	VOLUNTEERING	VOLUNTEERISM
Freely-willed (as above) and aimed toward social betterment by association	VOLUNTARY ASSOCIATION	VOLUNTARISM

The specification of meanings for VOLUNTEERISM and VOLUNTARISM is perhaps the most controversial aspect of this paper. Typically the words are used synonomously,[8] and often even interchangeably at random, by leaders in the field as well as by lay persons. Perhaps the greatest clarity in their use as different concepts is found in the thinking of Harry Hogan, until recently Deputy Secretary for Policy Planning at ACTION, who spoke of volunteerism when referring to volunteer-using and supporting agencies, and of voluntarism when referring to the non-profit sector as a whole, including the full range of voluntary social welfare organizations.[9] The present usage is closely linked to his, but seeks to focus on the different bases of volunteering and voluntary association, motivated action on the one hand and organized purpose on the other. Therefore, the present scheme can identify an area of overlap between volunteering and voluntary association, and between volunteerism and voluntarism. Rather than suggesting that the two worlds are different, the present scheme suggests that in a large part they are identical, or at least mutually enhancing.

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[7] Other dimensions may be added to this scheme. Following Smith, Baldwin and Reddy (1972), we can add a dimension of "system levels", identifying individual acts, roles, informal groups, and community levels of action for each positive concept.

[8] Consider the nearly identical definitions given of "voluntarism" by Manser and Cass and "volunteering" by Loeser. The former definition is: "those activities of individuals and agencies arising out of a spontaneous, private (as contrasted with governmental) effort to promote or advance some aspect of the common good, as this good is perceived by the persons participating in it" (1976:14). The latter, as indicated above, is: "the free giving of one's time and talents for work deemed socially or politically beneficial" (1974:1).

One test of the pudding presented here, then, is the demonstration that there is something special about the type of voluntary action that blends volunteering and voluntary association. If the scheme is to be as useful as I believe it ought to be, there should be expected a unique contribution from that overlapping form of voluntary action.

Perhaps it would be useful to spend a few moments considering what we want from volunteering and voluntary action. Three criteria come immediately to my mind: a good blend of service and advocacy; an appropriate mix of conservation and change; and the enhancement of democracy.[10] Let's look at each in turn.

The first is the criterion that specifies the range of actions we value. Voluntary action involves many activities, including some that are primarily oriented to the provision of services, and others primarily oriented to the advocacy of social change and social policy. I believe that an adequate concept should include room for both service and advocacy. Indeed, Ivan Scheier and I have come to believe that service and advocacy are better seen as facets of the same caring process, rather than polar opposites, as ordinarily conceptualized.

The second criterion involves change and conservation. Again, the world of voluntary action is vast, and appropriately involves room for acts that hold fast to that which is good, and seek to create what needs to be built. Both change (and often radical change) and conservation are required in the good society, and in my view, voluntary activity can play a critical role in both the definition of what needs to be changed and what conserved, as well as in the enhancement of appropriate change and conservation.

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[9] For a lucid discussion of voluntary organizations in social welfare, see Levin (1971). Hogan's distinctions became clear to me during our joint service on the board of the Alliance for Volunteerism. Susan Greene, President of the Association of Junior Leagues, draws a similar distinction in her speech "To Promote Voluntarism" (1977:1).

[10] These criteria may usefully be compared with Manser and Cass' list of six "critical objectives" for the voluntary sector, which involve "enfranchisement and participatory democracy," program review, increased commitment to advocacy and social reform, increased numbers of volunteers, public accountability, and collaboration (1976:247-248).

Finally, an important criterion is the enhancement of democracy. At the heart of the concepts we are discussing is the protection and development of individual self-expression, opportunity, association, and collective articulation of needs and interests. As no democratic society can rest on a base of apathy and inequality, so no adequate form of voluntary action can be content to accept limits of privatism and prevailing power.

Now, how do our proposed concepts stand up under examination in terms of these criteria? VOLUNTARY ACTION clearly meets the first two, but stumbles on the third. Some freely-willed acts clearly do not further democratic ends, such as participation in the KKK or other freedom-denying organizations, and others are grandly neutral to such ends, such as drinking, adultering, and spectating.

VOLUNTEERING, on the other hand, has been challenged on all three fronts. The term (and particularly its ideological mate, VOLUNTEERISM) has been widely criticized as biased toward service rather than advocacy, conservatism rather than change, and as not productive of democracy.

Thus, in 1971 the NOW Task Force on Volunteerism cautioned women about the costs of "traditional service-oriented volunteering", defined as the extension of conventional roles (e.g., conservative) not able to address the "massive and severe social ills" of our time (e.g., not productive of democracy). "Political or change-oriented volunteering", on the other hand, was viewed positively in its focus "on changing the larger social, political or economic system" (National Organization of Women Task Force on Volunteerism, 1975:73).

The NOW position was strongly criticized by Ellen Sulzberger Straus, who noted that the decision to engage in service or advocacy must be left to the individual--no organization ought "to be the final judge of what a woman can or cannot do with her life, either during or after working hours." Straus coupled her defense of VOLUNTARY ACTION with the example that service-oriented VOLUNTEERING in draft-counseling might be more valuable than politically-oriented VOLUNTEERING with CREEP. She also noted that "citizen participation on a broader scale is essential to our efforts to refind ourselves as a nation", a ringing defense of VOLUNTARY ASSOCIATION and VOLUNTARISM (Straus, 1975:75).

Dorothy Height, President of the National Council of Negro Women, and more recently also President of the Alliance for Volunteerism, set a more pragmatic tone in her criticism of the NOW position: "While you work to open the doors, you have to salvage the talents, interests and spirits of people so that they will be ready to walk through these doors" (quoted in Manser and Cass, 1976:59).

That VOLUNTEERISM contributes to democratic structure and enhances social change was also argued by the Association of Junior Leagues in a 1974 interview: their spokesperson noted that volunteers can "experiment, demonstrate and innovate, monitor the public sector objectively and impartially and initiate those services unmet by government programs" (quoted in Ann Ogden, 1974:10). The innovation and monitoring functions of VOLUNTEERING are often best advanced by advocacy VOLUNTEERISM, though not exclusively. As Scheier envisioned it in his 1976 address to the Jubilee of the Association of Volunteer Bureaus:

> advocacy volunteering does not have to input to or terminate in a legislator's office; it can open up new paths for positive impact in a free society. Nor is voluntary action any longer to be seen as merely one side-effect of freeness in a society; rather let us take the responsibility for seeing that it is a cause of it. We shall "plead the cause of freedom;" more than that, we can activate freedom in assisting advocacy volunteering (1976:4-5).

Translating Straus, Height, the Junior League spokesperson, and Scheier into the argument of this paper, I believe it can be stated confidently that a pluralistic VOLUNT...ISM, seen to include an active blending of VOLUNTARY ASSOCIATION and VOLUNTEERING, will provide for the enhancement of democratic structures, the creation of needed change, and the protection of institutions and programs of established value. Such a sector is uniquely capable of avoiding the pitfalls that have met so many organizations that have sought to focus entirely on VOLUNTEERING or entirely on being a VOLUNTARY ASSOCIATION. Major among those pitfalls are service or advocacy exclusivity, ideological ignorance, and elite domination.

Service or advocacy exclusivity is dangerous in that it inhibits the mutual stimulation that can exist between the two legitimate and useful forms of voluntary association and volunteering, and damages the productivity of both the service and the advocacy volunteer. Separation of service and advocacy cuts the service volunteer off from a full discussion and appreciation of the ends toward which his/her service acts as a means, and removes the advocacy volunteer from a firm rootedness in the context of concrete human problems and situations. Both need the other to temper and inform and strengthen their mission.

Ideological ignorance is closely related. The service volunteer must aware of the larger consequences of his/her work--as the NOW position makes clear--and as the four critics cited above agree. As Scheier put it, "some kinds of unpaid service could be considered undesirable. We just don't talk about them much, but you should be able to identify a few examples with a little thought. The point is, the acceptable-unacceptable dimension runs through both service and advocacy volunteering. The decision as to when the activity is acceptable enough for us to work with it, is essentially the same for both" (1976:3). One way to facilitate the judgment of the value of one's work is to be in a position to line up what it means in terms of larger ends, like democracy, opportunity, and equality. This is the very heart of the skill of the advocacy volunteer. And, as Mannheim (1949) has suggested, avoiding the relationship between one's acts and ideological meanings is itself an ideological act.

The activist within the voluntary association must also avoid the pitfall of ideological ignorance. As Trudy Heller and I have noted, the activist may come to value conflict over ideas more highly than the actual achievement of his/her ends of social change:

> Conflict often becomes an end in itself to the advocate, and other means of conflict resolution

> that are less dramatic--such as compromise and the search for consensus--are often eschewed in the drift toward the final showdown. Few ask if the coming confrontation is necessary, for to ask the question is to admit to a less than total dedication to the cause of the group (1976:7).

Thinkers and doers need each other, I suggest.

The third pitfall is that of elite domination, which in the volunteer world simply means that leaders and volunteers should come from all walks of life. It is particularly important that this area be broad so that the ancient stigma of charity as a means of social control by the wealthy and powerful over the poor and weak be fully eliminated.

In the world of voluntary associations, this pitfall is most powerfully seen as the "iron law of oligarchy", the tendency of such associations to fall into the control of few, powerful leaders. This form of domination may be tempered by a broad infusion of volunteer participation, useful in restraining autonomy of leaders and discouraging the abuse of power.

Goals of advocacy, reform and enhancement of democracy are frequently presented with great eloquency by leaders in the voluntary sector, as Paul Sherry's lucid statement demonstrates: the role of the voluntary sector is "to continually shape and reshape the vision of a more just social order, to propose programs which might lead to the manifestation of that vision, to argue for them with other contenders in the public arena, and to press for adoption and implementation" (quoted in Manser and Cass, 1976:129).

More recently, Susan Greene has reminded us that "without groups of people voluntarily banding together over principles and philosophy, our country would not have been born. Without concerned people voluntarily addressing political, social and economic inequities, women would not have the vote, nor would orphanages, settlement houses, hospitals, fire departments, and museums have been established. The Abolition Movement was a voluntary movement. The Civil Rights Movement was born in the private sector. From the voluntary sector comes the initiative, experimentation, implementation, and proof of a concept's worth. It is then at this point that the governmental sector, and sometimes the corporate or profit-making sector, can begin to support the proven service, concept, or principle, and voluntarism moves on to find other methods, in a million different areas, to improve our civilized society" (1977:2).

Stirring as these visions are, we must recognize that they are more often than not pushed aside for more mundane visions in the everyday implementation of voluntary programs. Herman Levin reminds us that even when citizen participation has been emphatically realized as a social goal, it has not always sustained citizen interest. Moreover, as a 1968 report he cites notes plaintively: "While voluntary agencies almost always stress their role as pathfinders and innovators, too many perform this function in minor key, if at all" (Levin, 1971:1520).

Our task is thus to surmount, in design and implementation, the familiar pitfall of immobilization, It is my hope that by blending both service and advocacy, and by keeping all members close to both meaning and action--the excesses of exclusivity, ideological ignorance, and elite domination can be significantly reduced. The resultant organization might well emerge as both democratic and effective, both relevant to change and rooted in the meeting of real human needs.

Thus, for our work here this week, and beyond, it is my assertion that the role of Colleges and Universities in Volunteerism should be one that fosters with particular fervor those forms of voluntary action that enhance consciousness of the relations between ends and means, enlarge upon the structure of democratic society, and call clearly for change or conservation as required by the first two demands. Only a VOLUNTEERISM linked closely to the work of VOLUNTARY ASSOCIATIONS will use most productively our earnest and well-intentioned energies; only a VOLUNTARISM drawing profoundly upon the contributing of VOLUNTEER participants will generate pressures for citizen change that will contribute to the building for a foundation upon which the daily acts of millions of Americans will indeed consist of the making of new bricks for our yet unfinished mansion of democracy.

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WHO VOLUNTEERS AND WHY

ATTITUDES OF 4-H VOLUNTEERS TOWARD INCENTIVES AND COMPETITION AND THE IMPLICATIONS FOR VOLUNTEERS IN YOUTH-SERVING AGENCIES

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Volunteers are vitally important to most youth organizations. A multiplication effect can be achieved to reach potential youth through the efforts of limited professional staff resources to recruit, train and support volunteers. However, each volunteer brings to any program a unique experiential background including attitudes, beliefs and values, which may significantly influence the way in which he or she interacts with youth.

In the 4-H Youth Development program alone, in fiscal year 1976, 372,000 adults served as volunteer leaders. Each volunteer may verbalize in a different way their individual reason for involvement, but generally, one of the following factors served as motivation to volunteer.

> Social pressure -- they were asked by a professional, another 4-H leader, or youth themselves, and couldn't say "no".
>
> Parenting Values -- they perceived the youth organization to be good for the development of their child.
>
> Tradition -- they had been members of the organization as a youth.
>
> Altruism -- they wanted other youth to have the opportunity for experience in the organization.

The purpose of this study was to focus on an element of motivation, a part of the 4-H program which had become tradition, the use of incentives and competition, and to investigate the relationship of attitudes of volunteers toward incentives to demographic and social psychological variables.

Incentives and competition are a fundamental part of life. However, the emphasis of extrinsic incentives or material rewards and competition in the socialization of children can be questioned. Extrinsic incentives and competition have long been used as motivation for learning, both in and outside the classroom. Honor rolls and spelling contests, merit badges in scouting, and achievement pins in 4-H have all been utilized as a means of motivating participation and reinforcing learning.

The teacher in the formal education setting, or the adult volunteer in an informal educational program, ultimately establishes the climate for learning, and utilizes incentives and competition in some form.

When all group members are treated alike, and inter-individual competition for extrinsic rewards is high, each child may not be equally motivated to do well. It is then the responsibility of the teacher or volunteer to fully understand each youth he or she is working with, and to create a motivational climate for learning that is best for that individual.

However, each teacher or volunteer is also influenced by the normative expectations of the educational agency, as well as societal values that reward good grades, blue ribbons, or a competitive spirit. If any change is to be expected in the way incentives are used, then it is first necessary to understand the social and psychological factors that influence how incentives are used, including the underlying attitudes of teachers or volunteers.

The sample for this study consisted of 116 4-H volunteer leaders in 25 North Carolina counties, who responded to and completed a mail questionnaire. The typical respondent could be described as a female 4-H volunteer leader, 41 years old. She was a rural resident and had spent the majority of her life in the country. She had at least a high school education and as a youth was more likely to have participated in a church youth group than any other out-of-school youth organization.

She had been a 4-H leader for four to nine years in North Carolina, and had an average of sixteen boys and girls in her 4-H club.

She had children who either were currently or had been 4-H members, and they had likely won at least one 4-H award at the local, county or district level.

Besides providing background data, each participant also responded to an attitude scale. The scale solicited attitudes toward:

1. Intrinsic incentives: internal feelings of achievement, or satisfaction for carrying out an act, or self-reward.

2. Extrinsic incentives: concrete or symbolic rewards which serve as goal objects.

3. Competition: the process by which rewards are attained. (Intra-individual, inter-individual, or inter-groups)

4. Authoritarian beliefs: adaptation of Adorno's F Scale. (Adorno et al., 1950)

ATTITUDES TOWARD INTRINSIC INCENTIVES

Two independent variables, level of education and authoritarian beliefs, were significantly related to attitudes toward intrinsic incentives. The relationship between education level and attitudes toward intrinsic incentives was such that as education level increased, attitude scores toward intrinsic incentives increased. This is a logical relationship in that it is expected that with more education there is an increased knowledge of types of motivation and rewards. Although data were not gathered regarding types of educational experience, i.e., curriculum or majors, further study of this variable in depth might lend additional insight to the experiential source of positive or high attitudes toward intrinsic incentives. Since a high percentage of the respondents were women, it might also be inferred that many of those with higher education had possibly been involved in teacher education and, therefore, had some knowledge of educational psychology. This finding is supportive of the premise that attitudes are formed as a function of experience.

The relationship between intrinsic incentives and authoritarian beliefs was an inverse one, indicating that as attitude scores increased on one variable, i.e., intrinsic incentives, the score for the other variable, i.e., authoritarian beliefs, decreased. This relationship is consistent with the operational definition of the two variables, whereby intrinsic incentives are defined as internal rewards or satisfaction for doing a task, and authoritarian beliefs are defined as the inability to deal with new or different cognitive material, the tendency to seek rapid closure when exposed to new situations, and to depend heavily on external sources of authority. Intrinsic incentives are oriented to internal motivation and reward, and authoritarian beliefs to external authority and control. This inverse relationship is also consistent with other studies.

ATTITUDES TOWARD EXTRINSIC INCENTIVES

None of the independent variables was significantly related to attitudes toward extrinsic incentives. The difference between mean scores for male and female 4-H volunteers approaches significance at the .07 level. This difference may partially be accounted for by the nature of the 4-H program. Although both male and female leaders may teach projects related to agriculture, only females usually teach the home economics projects. In the agriculture area there are traditional competitive events that have large extrinsic awards associated with them. Therefore, the male 4-H volunteer as associated with these agricultural projects, might have more favorable attitudes toward extrinsic awards.

The lack of significance between attitudes toward extrinsic incentives and the selected independent variables should be investigated further. This section of the instrument may lack reliability, or the population sampled did not have an experiential base that had resulted in strongly formulated attitudes toward extrinsic incentives.

ATTITUDES TOWARD COMPETITION

Competition, perceived as the process of attaining incentives, and the subsequent attitude scores for competition, were significantly related to place of residence, education, and authoritarian beliefs.

Rural non-farm residents had higher scores towards competition than did rural farm or urban residents. This relationship indicated that residence was a viable variable when distinguishing attitudes toward competition. The direction of the relationship, however, may partially be explained by the nature of the 4-H Youth Program. Although originally a rural youth organization with concentrated competitive activities in rural agricultural projects, a growing number of participants have become rural non-farm and urban residents. The rural non-farm residents may have originally been farm participants and moved out of active farming on a large scale, but continued with agriculture type 4-H projects. However, 4-H participants in urban areas have been exposed to different projects and activities more suitable to their needs, and with different types of competitive experiences. Also, the likelihood that a rural non-farm 4-H volunteer was either a former 4-H member, or had previous knowledge of 4-H competitive activities, is greater than for an urban 4-H volunteer.

However, this finding is not consistent with beliefs that urban life is more competitive than rural life. Experience in 4-H may be more influential in this sample than generalized rural-urban life experiences and their influence on attitude formation.

Attitude scores toward competition were also significantly different on the basis of education. As education level increased, from less than a high school graduate to a college graduate, attitude scores toward competition decreased. Again, education appears to be an influential experience in the formation of this attitude. The 4-H volunteer with a college education may perceive the process of attaining incentives through self-evaluation and against self determined standards and goals, as more significant than competition against others, in terms of youth development. This is also consistent with the finding that 4-H volunteers with higher education levels had significantly higher attitude scores toward intrinsic incentives.

A significant relationship was also found between attitudes toward competition and authoritarian beliefs. This is logically consistent in that if individuals scored high in relation to external authority and control, they also had high scores in relation to experiences that emphasized the attainment of external rewards.

IMPLICATIONS

The major implications of this study are in reference to the recruitment and training of volunteers to carry out organizational goals. What are the organizational goals in terms of youth development and what is the role of incentives and competition in attainment of these goals? If development of intrinsic motivation is important, and competition is to be deemphasized, the results of this study indicate the education level of the volunteer is a key factor. This may be stressed through the recruitment of volunteers with higher education levels, or training experiences could be provided that increase the volunteers' knowledge of intrinsic motivation and its development.

Another related area to be explored here is the motivation and fulfillment of the volunteer's needs. Based on social exchange theory, the volunteer who emphasizes extrinsic incentives, competition, and authoritarian beliefs, may be motivated by tradition, as they experienced it in the organization, as well as personal reward through the achievements of the youth he or she is working with. This may have implications for how the organization recognizes its volunteers. Can other means be provided to fulfill volunteer needs for rewards and recognition, other than through youth?

The understanding of how incentives and competition may be used in a social association between adult volunteers and youth, and their affect, is still at an elementary level. However, incentives and competition may have a significant role in terms of motivation and reinforcement of learning, as well as providing indirect rewards for the volunteer. Further study in this area is needed in order to be more conclusive, but this report may stimulate thought and raise questions that will initiate more research, as well as provide insight to the motivation and actions of volunteers in youth-serving agencies.

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THE APPLICATION OF CREATIVE RESTITUTION TO VOLUNTEERISM: A STUDY OF MOTIVATIONS AND CONTRIBUTIONS

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Volunteerism and creative restitution are closely related and share significant commonalities. The motivations and dynamics which support creative restitution can be directly applied to the concept of volunteerism. Volunteerism and creative restitution offer considerable contribution not only to the client system and organizations, but to the volunteers and participants themselves. This paper will discuss the relationship of the two concepts with particular focus on creative restitution and the similarities and close association of the two concepts.

An important development in human services has been the volunteerism movement. The concept of restitution is primary in the development and continuation of volunteerism. The act of volunteering in an infinite variety of situations; ex-drug user and ex-offender programs, as well as college students working at the community level, all embrace aspects of creative restitution. Creative restitution will be referred to as services provided by the individual to the community and to the general "community good." The potential types of involvements are indeed infinite and limitless. "Restitutional like" programs which incorporate many aspects of volunteerism have been a part of correctional programming historically. Offender involvements in service programs such as March of Dimes drives, toy repair projects, fighting forest fires and other disasters, as well as volunteer participation in medical experiments relating to cancer, malaria, etc., although not structured and organized relates to the same dynamics and motivational processes as structured formalized volunteer programs.

Restitution has been a significant concept over the centuries and has had a vital place in a variety of cultures. Restitution has been a concept of prominent importance, historically, to our system of law and criminal justice. A primary foundational support for the concept of restitution is its concern for the motivations and psychological dynamics of the offender. Evidence for this concern in "primitive" criminal law can be found in Germanic law, Roman law, Babylonian and ancient Persian law, as well as in comtemporary primitive laws.

A primary assumption of this paper is that creative restitution is a form of volunteerism. A second significant assumption is that "we" can learn something about volunteerism by examining the creative restitution literature. The paper will discuss the general application of restitution, creative restitution in the criminal justice system, rationale and rehabilitative supports for creative restitution theory supportive theories, and implications for volunteerism.

GENERAL APPLICATION OF CREATIVE RESTITUTION

The dynamic of restitution is incorporated into everyone's behavior patterns and when misbehavior does occur subsequent spontaneous restitution or some act of amending is likely to take place. (Dockar-Drysdale, 1953). Restitution is a natural process which occurs in all of our lives, begins at an early age, and can take a variety of forms. The countless ways that individuals 'make-up' to someone they have hurt is but one example of this natural process. As an effective disciplinary or educative technique "rectification" or "making good" is an important process with children. (Schafer, 1965, p. 250). This "rectification" or "making good" is, in fact, restitution. It is not only a natural process, but may be an integral element in treatment; and, according to Eglash, "restitution may appropriately be part of a clinical treatment program, and replace the distorted restitution which occurs spontaneously in ego disorders." (Eglash, 1958, p. 620). Although Dockar-Drysdale refers primarily to restitution with children, various types of restitution are noted.

> Firstly, the enforced restitution which is punishment; secondly, the restitution for which means can be made available; thirdly, the fantasy restitution which is carried out by the child is so distorted a way as to be unrecognizable; fourthly, the spontaneous restitution which the child will tend to make according to his own needs. (Dockar-Drysdale, 1953, p. 13).

An important development in human services has been volunteerism and the self-help group movement. The concept of restitution is primary in both of these developments. According to Eglash,

> a form of restitution always available, whether one has commited an offense, or has inflicted accidental damage, or has himself suffered a wrong either from others or from fate, is to seek out and to help others in the same boat. (Eglash, 1958, p. 621).

The act of volunteering in an infinite variety of situations; ex-drug user and ex-offender programs, Alcoholics Anonymous as well as many other related programs, all embrace the concept of restitution.

The general significance of restitution only further supports the concept and its potential in criminal justice. Creative restitution is the specific concept which will be developed.

CREATIVE RESTITUTION IN THE CRIMINAL JUSTICE SYSTEM

Creative restitution does present considerable potential for utilization.

> Creative restitution,
>
> is a process in which an offender, under appropriate supervision, is helped to find some way to

> make amends to those he has hurt by his offense . . . (Eglash, "Creative Restitution: Some Suggestions for Prison Rehabilitation Programs," 1958, p. 20).

It refers to ". . . payments in either goods, services, or money, made by offenders to the victims of their crimes." (Hudson and Galaway, 1974, pp. 313-314). Creative restitution, as it is conceptualized here, refers to services provided by the individual to the community and to the general "community good."

The characteristics of the creative restitutional act have been described as follows:

1. It is an active effortful role on the part of the offender.
2. This activity has socially constructive consequences.
3. These constructive consequences are related to the offense.
4. The relationship between offense and restitution is reparative, restorative.
5. The reparation may leave the situation better than before the offense was committed. (Eglash, 1958, p. 20).

The service performed for the victim by the offender is limitless, although ideally it should be related to the offense. In many cases, such as victim-less crimes, lack of victim participation in a restitution contract, or in the case of groups of institutionalized offenders, it is not possible for the offender to provide a direct service to the victim. In this situation the offender would provide a service to the larger community which might ideally, but not necessarily, be related to the offense; yet the restitutive act would be of social value. Critical elements in creative restitution are that the restitution be related, when possible, to the offense and that the restitution not be imposed on the offender, but developed through a contractual relationship between the offender and the victim. The offender cannot be forced or made to become involved in the creative restitution process by criminal justice personnel. It should, in effect, be voluntary on the part of the offender, as far as this is possible in the criminal justice system.

"Restitutional like" programs, although not formally conceptualized as restitution, have been a part of correctional programming historically. Offender involvement in service programs such as March of Dimes drives, toy repair projects, fighting forest fires and other national disasters, as well as volunteer participation in medical experiments relating to cancer, malaria, etc., (Fuller, 1956, p. 53) although not structured and organized, relates to the same dynamics and motivational processes as structured formalized programs. The following are programatic examples of creative restitution:

1. An offender convicted of burglary at a private residence subsequently formed a contractual relationship with the victim and began making monetary payments of $16 a week to the victim to cover the damage that was done.

2. In a rural area two boys killed a calf and in lieu of commitment to a juvenile institution repaid the owner of the calf by working on his ranch for several weekends.
3. An offender originally convicted of burglary worked with the police department in burglary prevention programs and community education programs; thus utilizing his experience for the 'public good.'
4. An individual convicted of drunk driving worked with and assisted an ambulance crew, responding to highway accidents.

The various possibilities for implementing creative restitution are infinite.

An indication of the extremely limited utilization of creative restitution is manifested by the number of programs in operation. Although a number of states authorize what they term compensation or restitutional payment, significant elements of creative restitution are lacking. (Polish, 1973). A program which is related to creative restitution, especially symbolic restitution, is that of Community Service Volunteers in England. Juveniles who have been identified as delinquents by the court system are involved in this program as volunteers themselves. They are placed in a variety of programs and projects in the community with their volunteer work comprising an important element of their own institutional or school program. According to Kaufman,

> the effect on the delinquent youngster, who for the first time had the opportunity of helping others in need rather than being on the receiving end, was profound indeed. (Kaufman, 1973, p. 38).

Although its implementation is limited, creative restitution presents considerable potential for use in the criminal justice system. The rationale and conceptual supports for creative restitution theory are significant to volunteerism.

RATIONALE AND REHABILITATIVE SUPPORTS FOR CREATIVE RESTITUTION THEORY AND VOLUNTEERISM

Creative restitution offers significant potential because it relates to, and has implications for a variety of personal dynamics and processes including self-respect, self-esteem, self concept, individual basic needs, guilt, anxiety, responsibility, treatment interventions or therapy, and the victims themselves.

In commenting about the benefits and implications of a program involving symbolic restitution, Community Service Volunteers in England, Kaufman states,

> all of these projects involving delinquents had positive after-effects and caused relationships to emerge, self-image to change and leadership qualities to develop. (Kaufman, 1973, p. 38).

With regard to the importance of the offender-victim relationship, it has been stated that,

> a basic assumption is that the collaboration between victim and offender will bring about changed attitudes and lead to mutual perceptions of each other as people with similar needs and problems as opposed to formally labeled and qualitatively different types of human beings. (Galaway and Hudson, "Issues in the Correctional Implementation of Restitution to Victims of Crime," 1973, p. 5).

Since restitution is a natural process beginning at an early age involving child and mother in which the child seeks to make amends, (Dockar-Drysdale, 1953, p. 8) restitution relates to interpersonal dynamics and processes.

The ego-shattering experience of being involved in the criminal justice system and being labeled "offender," "inmate," "ex-con," etc. damages one's sense of self-respect and self-esteem. (Johnson, 1957, p. 57). Organized efforts which tend to increase an offenders' self-respect have not been integrated into criminal justice. The criminal justice process is basically an experience which tends to isolate the offender from the social values which we as a society are attempting to inculcate. Processes which support and strengthen these social values need to be developed. Creative restitution is theoretically supported by these values and in turn the restitutional process contributes to and furthers such values. Creative restitution, especially symbolic restitution, i.e. service to the general community and service to the victim, contributes to the offender achieving " . . . a sense of self-worth and feels that he is playing a significant role in an important and worthy cause." (Fuller, 1956, p. 54). Ones' sense of self-respect and self-esteem has the likelihood of improvement as a result of such experiences, whereas isolating experiences such as incarceration tend to be counter-productive with regard to self-respect and self-worth. The creative restitutional process gives

> . . . inmates greater feelings of self-worth and also gives them some greater feeling of responsibility for, and interest in, the society of which they are part. (Johnson, 1957, p. 58).

According to Johnson:

> The need to respect oneself is a powerful one. The penal institution which is most effective in rehabilitating its inmates will be the one which supplies the greatest number of ego-building opportunities for the greatest number of its population. (Johnson, 1957, p. 58).

Self-concept must be considered in the development of criminal or delinquent behavior as well as in the termination of such behavior. A self-concept which tends to reinforce and support social values is a goal in the criminal justice system. This writer supports the contention that such a self-concept is developed by involving the offender in processes which support those social values. Creative restitution relates to both self-concept and prevalent societal values. Self-concept is relevant to offenders as noted by Johnson:

> Most inmates spend some time in prison attempting to repair and bolster their own self-concepts. There are many ways in which they attempt to do this. Some of them participate in athletics, some work steadily and hard in prison industries, some attend the academic school or take college extension courses, some learn a trade, some work as trustees, some read whay they consider better literature, some work at handicraft, some work on the prison paper, some write stories, some give blood or volunteer as subjects for medical research.
>
> The important point here is that the many worthwhile activities in which prison inmates engage are directed primarily at the improvement of the inmate's self-concept. (Johnson, 1957, p. 58).

Offenders also attempt to alter their self-concept by activities which are not as socially acceptable as those mentioned. However, self-concept is a significant factor that must be considered in either situation.

If we can understand how an individual perceives himself as capable of committing criminal acts, the same dynamics can be incorporated into strategies for changing such behavior. Self-concept is a primary factor in ones' perception of himself as able to perform criminal behaviors.

> The offender may come to look at himself as a person capable of committing antisocial acts in two somewhat different although related ways. One may be a direct lowering of the self-concept, generally as a result of many ego-shattering experiences in his relationship with other people. This is often a repeated failure when the individual attempts constructive activities. One may speculate here on the effect of an individual's self-concept of repeated failures to keep a job, particularly when one observes the record of vocational instability of so many inmates. The other way in which an individual may come to perceive of himself as a person capable of unlawful behavior is through the process of rationalization of his act or intended act. When looked at in terms of the self-concept, it becomes apparent that rationalization is an attempt to make the act of committing the crime compatible with the individual's view of himself. If one can build a satisfactory set of rationalizations for his acts, he is more likely to be able to retain a greater degree of self-respect. That is, he is less likely to suffer a marked lowering of his self-concept. (Johnson, 1957, p. 57).

This process of rationalization or neutralization as well as self-concept, can be altered by direct involvement and participation in a rehabilitative process that reinforces societal values. Creative restitution is such a rehabilitative process.

The creative restitution process has implications which are of both a psychological and a sociological nature. According to Fuller, "Psychologically, basic needs of the individual inmate are fulfilled and, sociologically, his identification with the free society group is reinforced." (Fuller, 1956, p. 52). With regard to symbolic restitution, it has been noted that, "by being in kind, restitution provides a substitute outlet for the same conscious needs and unconscious emotional conflicts which motivated the offense." (Eglash, "Creative Restitution: A Broader Meaning For An Old Term," 1958, p. 620).

Related to the previously discussed concepts of self-respect and self-concept are two needs which are directly connected to creative restitution, i.e. recognition and acceptance. The human desire for recognition and acceptance can be incorporated into criminal justice. Although the offender was commenting about the inmate blood donor program, and the reasons why offenders desire involvement in such causes, his comments were directly related to the creative restitutional process, especially the symbolic forms.

> . . . we experience the same basic desires and wishes for our fellow men and society in general as (do others) outside prison walls. At the present time we cannot be volunteer Red Feather workers, members of citizens associations, or civil defense workers. These are the kinds of activities which provide outlets for some of the basic human wants--response, new experiences, recognition, and security--which are parts of every normal individual. Since we cannot participate in any of these activities for the betterment of mankind, we become doubly touched by any sort of program permitting us the opportunity to participate. (Fuller, 1956).

These "basic desires" and "wishes" contribute in forming a foundation for the utilization of creative restitution. If the desire and willingness is already present to some extent in the offender body, it should be capitalized on and utilized in a systematic fashion in order to develop increasing feelings of recognition and acceptance by offenders. Of primary import to the offender is the realization that socially acceptable behavior and positive attitudes are recognized and rewarded as well as the therapeutic value of active participation in such a process. (Fuller, 1956, p. 53).

The social dimension of creative restitution is quite significant as it keeps the offender in contact with, and contributes to his further identification with the general community. The process of isolation from the ongoing society that many offenders experience is devastating.

> One of the negative influences observed in maximum security prisons is the tendency for the inmate gradually to lose his identification with primary and other free society groups. In direct ratio, it is found that the longer the inprisonment, the poorer becomes the identification with the free society group and its culture. The substitution is identification with the penal community group and its culture. (Fuller, 1956, p. 52).

The creative restitutional process counteracts this isolation and involves the offender with individuals in the general community and societal values. An important concern in rehabilitation is just this need to keep offenders in identification with primary and other 'free' society groups.

The restitutive process relates directly to the dynamic of guilt, which has been of concern in offender rehabilitation. It is difficult to alleviate this guilt when the offender is involved in the criminal justice system and little opportunity is present. Traditionally, this and other concerns are dealt with in therapy; however, without in some fashion making amends, at least psychologically, this feeling of guilt will tend to continue. Creative restitution is an amending process as viewed by the offender and therefore has considerable implication for feelings of guilt as well as shame, anxiety and rejection which might be present.

> Few systems of reforming criminals do not include among their aims to arouse understanding and the expiation of a sense of guilt on the part of the criminal. This is the sort of psychological process, which, while it can be initiated and assisted by others, cannot be done on behalf of the criminal and must in the last resort be done by the criminal himself. Restitution, again, is something an offender does, not something done for him or to him, and as it requires effort on his part, it may be especially useful in strengthening his feelings or responsibility. (Schafer, 1965, p. 125).

The amending or restitutional process involves active participation with some sense of closure which is not generally true of the more traditional offender rehabilitation programs.

A number of therapies or treatment strategies incorporate key concepts of creative restitution, or in fact embrace creative restitution theory itself. One such important concept is that of responsibility. Through a program of active participation in the rehabilitative process, creative restitution focuses on the development of responsibility. The concept of responsibility is dealt with in the rehabilitation literature to a great extent. This concept is central and basic in Glasser's 'reality therapy.' Glasser defines responsibility as, "the ability to fulfill one's needs, and to do so in a way that does not deprive others of the ability to fulfill their needs." (Glasser, 1965, p. 13). Responsibility is developed through the very act of making amends or restitution for acts or behaviors that have deprived others.

Alcoholics Anonymous stresses the importance of making amends to those individuals that one has harmed. (Eglash, 1958, p. 621). Transactional Analysis supports and incorporates aspects of creative restitutional theory. In fact one of the creative restitution programs previously discussed initally utilized 'reality therapy' as a treatment model; however, at present, 'transactional analysis' is incorporated into the program. (Minnesota Department of Corrections, 1974, p. 13). The existential and humanist orientation provides support for restitutional-like processes. Mowrer stresses the significance of restitution in all rehabilitative processes, including his "integrity therapy" as well as his related works.

> Now is the moral law less demanding than the civil and criminal codes? Does conscience have less rectitude than a court? Unless we can answer this question affirmatively, it follows that in the moral realm, no less than in law, confession is not enough and must be accompanied by restitution. This possibility has been generally neglected in our time and may account for widespread confusion and misdirected therapeutic and redemptive effort. Psychologists and psychiatrists have stressed the importance of "insight" rather than personal guilt and repentance; and even the church has preached what Dietrich Bonhoeffer (1948) has called the doctrine of "cheap grace," which he holds is no grace at all . . . (Mowrer, 1961, p. 100).

Regarding the lack of personal responsibility for behavior and lack of means of carrying out and demonstrating this responsibility or obligation, Mowrer further states:

> But when the individual can blame himself and see his predicament as one for which he is largely responsible and which he can do something toward changing, the prospects of recovery--and personal transformation--are much brighter . . . (Mowrer, 1961, p. 101).

Mowrer stresses the significance of the restitutive process in any rehabilitative arena.

An important aspect of creative restitution is the demonstration of some concern for the victim. At present and for some time the victim in criminal justice has been neglected and, for the most part, completely ignored. As was previously discussed, concern for the victim was a critical element in early law. When the victim is discussed it is usually in relation to state compensation payments. Creative restitution serves the needs of both the victim as well as the offender. According to Laster, "criminal restitution, in focusing on both the needs of the criminal and the victim, would go a long way toward balancing the scales of justice." (Laster, 1970, p. 82). Not only is creative restitution beneficial in terms of rehabilitation for the offender, but offers the victim some sense of satisfaction and involves him in the criminal justice process.

Creative restitution embraces important concepts in social science and rehabilitation literature. These concepts have been incorporated and have been the central thesis of a number of rehabilitative orientations. Creative restitution emphasizes the often neglected victim as well as presenting considerable potential for the offender. With regard to restitutive acts it has been stated that,

> such acts have been interpreted psychologically as essential to rehabilitation, for good works give the offender a conception of himself as a good person and facilitate his identification with anti-criminal persons. (International Encyclopedia of the Social Sciences, XI, p. 521).

Four theories have direct application to volunteerism and creative restitution. Howwver, space limitations do not permit full clarification and discussion, although all of the theories are of significance. Symbolic interaction and differential association theories have their roots in criminal justice literature, but certainly apply to volunteerism. Social obligation[1] theory as well as moral development theory and values literature holds significant implications for volunteerism and creative restitution.

IMPLICATIONS FOR VOLUNTEERISM

This paper has explicated the concept of creative restitution and demonstrated the close relationship between creative restitution and volunteerism. An underlying assumption throughout this discussion has been that creative restitution is in fact, a form of volunteerism.

The fact that in our daily lives we "make-up," rectify, "make good" or amend a wrong is evidence of the widespread incorporation of restitution. Doesn't volunteerism relate to these same dynamics? It is this writer's belief that many times individuals participate in volunteer projects in order to "make-up" or amend. This is certainly a valid motivation to volunteer. The error has been that we have not recognized it as such.

Creative restitution in the criminal justice system is basically a formalized system of volunteerism with rehabilitative components. It is quite structured and formalized, but it is volunteerism. In relation to opportunity theory offenders and youth, in general, do not have access to opportunity structures as we in the "free" community. However, offenders share our basic motivations, desires and needs with regard to participation, involvement and belonging. The motivating factors concerning volunteerism are frequently "overlooked" and imbued with altruistic, self-righteous, and self-sacrificing concerns. Creative restitution theory allows us to view the volunteerism dynamic from a somewhat different perspective. Volunteerism and creative restitution have significant implications for motivation. Both concepts relate directly to a variety of personal dynamics and processes including self-respect, self-esteem, self-concept, individual basic needs, guilt, anxiety, responsibility, and the need to feel that one is a contributing member of a community or society. The community is obviously benefitting from volunteerism, but frequently we overlook the volunteer and the significant benefits one receives personally from such an experience. Many times the potential volunteer has no other avenue in which to express these dynamics and needs, but through the act of volunteerism. The college student and offender, both without access to opportunity structures, find volunteerism or creative restitution a vehicle for expression.

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[1] The theory of social obligation is currently being developed by Dr. James Bridges and Dr. John T. Gandy. An unpublished manuscript is in the planning phase, this being authored by Dr. James Bridges and Dr. John T. Gandy.

The theories supportive of creative restitution have equal application to volunteerism, itself. According to symbolic interaction theory, behavior rests upon definition and interpretation of acts among associations. Thus, behavior is learned from one's associations through verbalizations as well as interpretation and definitions. Continued negative behavior according to symbolic interaction, rests on these continuing associations. It would appear that conversely, if these negative behavior patterns are to cease, positive associations must be developed. Creative restitution and volunteerism contribute to the development of an environment in which definitions, verbalizations, and interpretations are unfavorable of negative behaviors, but supportive of socially accepted goals and values. Social obligation theory, moral developmental theory and values material is directly related to the process of volunteerism. The basic goal is the development of socially accepted judgments and values. This can be achieved through involvement in volunteerism.

This paper has sought to delinate the close relationship between creative restitution and volunteerism. The general application of creative restitution was discussed as was the application of the concept to the criminal justice system, the rationale and rehabilitative supports for the concepts, as well as the supportive theories. It can be concluded that creative restitution is in fact a developing form and specialized concept of volunteerism.

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VOLUNTEERISM AMONG THE AGED: TOWARDS THE SELF-MANAGEMENT OF BEHAVIOR THROUGH AN OVERNIGHT CAMPING EXPERIENCE

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What motivates volunteers and helps infuse an esprit de corps among aged volunteers? A novel methodology proposed and implemented was the Elder Overnight Camp (EOC). After a two year pilot project, 85 normal aged have participated in two, 3-day outdoor camping experiences in a rustic outdoor environment. Charactericstics of campers include an extensive need for self actualization through the development of a novel project to help others and leave a legacy for mankind. Other Psychological needs include that of companionship, to be close to nature and to maintain one's level of health. The major source of motivation to inspire volunteerism in the campers was the primitive environment, the good food, and the fact that the camp was totally volunteer dominated. Anecdotal and empirical evidence is cited to support the major hypothesis that when older campers were exposed to a heterogeneous battery of volunteers they learned and practiced the art of volunteering themselves.

INTRODUCTION

What motivates older people to volunteer within a community setting? And who volunteers for community service among the elderly: These questions relating to who volunteers and why are subjects under discussion today. In order to examine these questions more fully we undertook a two year, on going-study to investigate characteristics associated with volunteers who participated in a multi-dimensional intervention mechanism developed to affect change in the direction of increasing volunteer behavior.

In the interest of presenting an historical perspective we first must establish a base line for background comparisons in the behavior of elder individuals before and after participating in a 3 day overnight camp. A camp is a society in microcosm-a group of assorted individuals who are gradually integrated during a limited interval (Riecken, 52). An extensive literature has been developed that has sorted out the interpersonal relationships that are encouraged in camps (Rose, 48). The tendency is to develop a familial type relationship where the individual participants find a high degree of acceptance and support from fellow project participants has extensive substantiation (Allport, 52; Riecken, 52). However, earlier methodological approaches tend to measure only attitude change after an intervention mechanism was completed. The use of traditional methods for volunteer evaluation require that an intervention mechanism not only change the attitude of the individuals involved but also affect other behavioral changes that can be observed i.e. organized action responses(DeRose & Rozan, 1973). Indeed a careful review of the literature fails to specify the relationship of attitudinal change to organized behavioral responses that eventually are manifest as organized voluntary action.

[1] Gratefully acknowledge some of the volunteers: My wife, Dawna Jenne; Casey Godek, PLS volunteer; Al Brodeur, Alex McDonald, Terry Cournoyer, Jack Anderson, Rita St. Andre, Ginger Phelan and Doris Fulton without whom the camp could never have materialized.

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PRELIMINARY BENCHMARKS: ON ROUTE TO AN EXPERIMENTAL HYPOTHESIS

A community action agency, the Community and Regional Opportunity Program (CROP), had initiated programming for older adults age 60 or more in 1972. With the responsibility of carrying out a program under ACTION entitled the Retired Senior Volunteer Program, CROP launched into the area of providing direct social services to older adults. Later, in 1973, CROP was established as a sponsor for Title VII funds under the Older Americans Act as amended in 1965. Title VII funding allowed for the establishment of congregate nutrition centers for the provision of meals five days per week within a community setting.

By 1974, CROP attracted additional funding under The Older Americans Act titled IVa which provided a grant to train staff or elderly that work in behalf of older people. Under the training guidelines established by Title IVa, 77 adults underwent at least one of four specially designed seminars to encourage improved services through education and applied study. Of the 77 adults, 41 were associated with RSVP and 52 were associated with Title VII.

In summary, three years of action programs targeted to affect change in behalf of older people had uncovered several unfilled program objectives: (1) The elder education model established under Title IVa was an effective means of managing volunteers engaged in direct service in bahalf of others. (2) 41 percent of the older people, both volunteers and non-volunteers admitted not having any kind of vacation in at least three years.[3] (3) Retired Senior Volunteers serving under ACTION were generally less active and less willing to volunteer during the summer months. Extensive attrition resulted in September with attempts to reinstate volunteer work habits.[4]

THE OVERNIGHT CAMP CONCEPT APPLIED TO AN ELDERLY POPULATION

In January 1974, after the loss of Title IVa training funds, several serious questions arose regarding the long term commitment of the agency in behalf of the elderly. Our needs assessment data, taken together, seemed to indicate that programming during the summer can enhance androgogy (adult learning), but must be provided at low or no cost to the individual. We deduced that programing conducted in comfortable-especially cool surroundings, and a relaxed-vacation-like system approach could potentially attract many needy elderly.

Presumably, sufficient resources can be marshalled to meet all of the necessary and appropriate requirements for aged adult programs. (O'Connell, 1976). However, the specific model or program objectives were still somewhat vague and, as yet, undefined.

The possibility of utilizing a campground setting (Naylor, 1967; Stenzel & Feeney, 1968) particularly the Springfield College Campgrounds was a proven model employed to promote leadership among children and college students.

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[3] Title VII internal review study completed in January 1975.

[4] (Personnel observation,1975) RSVP program data from the summer months reflected an actual decline of 25 per cent in voluntary hours.

Perhaps the Overnight camp model could achieve similar objectives among the elderly population that we worked with? Therefore, the experimental hypothesis that we employed in our investigations was: When older people select themselves to be campers and were exposed to a heterogeneous battery of volunteers they learned and practiced the art of volunteering themselves.

THE ELDER OVERNIGHT CAMP (EOC-1)

The EOC-1 model was piloted June 18-20, 1975 with 20 elder residents attending camp for 3 days and 2 nights. The Springfield College campgrounds were utilized by the 20 campers, 60 years of age or more. Those that took part in the initial project were the direct beneficiaries of the efforts of 31 voluntary staff people. As one of the campers was to write later, "The 20 of us who took part in this pioneering program received a real vacation. It was my first camping experience ever and I'm looking forward to owning my first sleeping bag.... The knowledge, and skills of all the volunteers inspired creativity, intellectual encounter, entertainment and eating pleasures that I'll never forget." A.M. died four months after writing these words.

The volunteers associated with the EOC-1 managed and implemented the entire program. Voluntary outreach people made speeches and attracted elderly to attend the first camp. The workshops, classes, recreational events, seminars, entertainment activities and cooking responsibilities were carried out completely by voluntary commitments. The individuals that lead discussions during the camp were heterogeneously mixed across age, profession, marital status and familiarity with the science of androgogy. The camp was totally volunteer dominated from the Project Director to cooks helper and all those in between who were attracted from area colleges, clubs, cooperatives, civic associations, business, industry and the social services.

The characteristics of those who volunteered can be specified as follows: There were Eight volunteers, who were 60 years of age or more, who contributed 18 hours of leadership responsibilities during the first camp. The 8 people were drawn from the social service sector through RSVP, Senior VISTA and State Commonwealth Service Corpsman. The material that was treated by this segment of the voluntary staff included: Limbering up after 60 years, Projective Testing through Crafts, Aging and Politics, and Insurance and Safety.

There were five volunteers who were professional lecturers and college professors who contributed nine hours of small seminar classes. Only two individuals had any experience working with elders and this was Title IVa related. The material that was treated by the professional lecturers was entitled; Today and Yesterday-Questions and Answers with a Sociologist, Creative Writing, Exercise and Recreation, A walk in Nature, Successful treatment of Elderly Mentally Ill (Duke Conference, 1975).

Six professional people contributed significantly to the overall success of the three day program by completing 13 hours of voluntary leadership training. The six people that volunteered included a Social Security expert, a marriage counselor, an educational film editor, two nurses, and a nursing home assistant administrator. The workshops conducted by these people generated extensive discussion.

METHODS

The methodological procedure employed during the pilot EOC project was not systematic or empirical but rather observational and anecdotal. Since our first year results are not clearly replicable the analysis of the data will reflect only a general demographic profile of the participating campers and the percent comparisons observed during a follow-up period.

SUBJECTS - Four male Ss and 16 female Ss completed the EOC-1. The average age of the participants was 74 years and the age range was 60-83. Only one participant was presently living with his mate. While 15 persons were widows, 2 were widowers and 2 were single.

The general educational background of the participants was, on the average, one year of high school. However, 10 of the elder campers had recently completed a college level course in either Pshychology or Sociology earlier in the year.

The general level of health among the campers was quite high. All elder Ss were required to receive a complete physical examination prior to attending the EOC. Two Ss died before the follow-up year ended.

PROCEDURE - The level of activity during retirement was measured by a self-reporting technique[5] administered by an aid prior to the camp (See Table I). The post test was completed by repeated follow-up methods through the initial referral source to the camp i.e. lunch site manager, outreach staff, clergyman or counselor.

Place Table I about here -

Three follow-up observations were scheduled to be performed on the 20 Ss during the year subsequent to the camp. At 4, 8 and 12 month intervals the referral source was contacted by a naive administrative aid to determine the level of volunteering during the past four months. During the first observational report at month four, the referral person was asked whether the S's volunteering time had increased, stayed the same or decreased since the camp.

RESULTS

The 20 Ss were better educated than the normal group of white older people in the general population averaging 9.4 years vs. 8.8 for the white population (Brotman, 1973). Volunteering was mentioned by 90 percent of the respondents in the self reporting scale.

During the follow-up period of the pilot program post test measures revealed several important trends by independent observers that see the aged subjects at least once every week.

Place Table 2 about here

The dramatic increase in the number of voluntary hours generated by 55% of the Ss that participated in the EOC-1 tends to confirm the original hypothesis. We took the present evidence as support for the experimental hypothesis and concluded that when older campers were exposed to a heterogeneous battery of volunteers they learned and practiced the art of volunteering themselves.

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[5] D. K. Jenne, 1972 unpublished Masters Thesis, Springfield College described the validity of a self reporting methodology.

Other remarks from the volunteer staff provide additional evidence about aging populations. Four anecdotal observations are: 1. The elder Ss evidenced a unique attitude towards working mothers-they believe women should work to maintain their identity. 2. The elder Ss vehemently disagree with the action that they should "dump" their money in case they go to a nursing home. 3. The elder Ss unanimously agreed that the reason they came to camp was for the companionship and to be close to nature. 4. Log cabin living was new to all the Ss but the thought of being pioneers again was exhilarating and fulfilling to 85% of the respondents.

To summarize, one S expressed his feeling which mirrored those of many others; "I'm not sure about coming to camp, in the first place, but I'm still willing to take a chance ...I'll be back next year...I hope."

DISCUSSION

The final evaluation of the EOC-I requires a multidimensional analysis depending upon which team member is assessing program impact. As a public relation event established to facilitate volunteerism through organized, grassroots action, the EOC was clearly successful. The long term impact for recruiting volunteers in the future in order to implement similar projects in behalf of elders established a clear precedent for future action (O'Connell,1976).

Measurement of individual psycho-social variables was based primarily on non empirical evidence generated by the volunteer staff and written testimony completed by 19 of the 20 subjects. Anectodal and testimonial evidence tended to support our needs assessment findings which suggested that any one of a variety of low cost vacation programs is needed to break the monotony of retirement and poverty.

The strength of the EOC to demonstrate adaptive mechanisms that assist individuals to cope with the stresses of late life are more difficult to demonstrate during a three day program. The value of a 15 week instructional curriculum utilized as part of the elder education model was particularly effective in managing elderly volunteers. For example, an individual whose self concept is diminished due to feelings of isolation, abandonment or terminal disease may begin to exhibit behavioral changes that can disrupt a social occasion (Goldfarb, 1973). An instructor available for a fifteen week period, can assist selected volunteers to "work through" their own reasonable fears about isolation or disease. Through persistence in working through one's own fears the volunteer may be able to react appropriately or possibly assist others in dealing with his own feelings about senescence. The extended period of study employed in a fifteen week model gives the individual an increased sense of accomplishment through self development. By contrast, the EOC model does not allow the individual camper to gather adequate feedback about what he learns nor is there adequate time to individualize instruction. Individualized curricula is a primary trademark for effective application of adult educational methods as suggested by The Academy of Educational Development Report (1974).

The methodology employed to evaluate the specific impact of the camp on the individual campers was not emphazied during EOC-I. Our observational measures must be systematized in order to improve feedback for future program design. Empirically, our methods for observing change attributable to camp attendance could not clarify what occurred in the case of the 9 individuals that showed no behavioral change associated with the intervention mechanism.

In summary, data gathered through EOC-I suggests that summer programming can attract limited numbers of older people by emphasizing nature and encouraging group interaction. The limitations of the program suggests that stricter empirical measures including the use of control groups are necessary to separate important aspects of the intervention mechanism.

INTRODUCTION II

Planning EOC-II began late August, 1975. 209 retired senior volunteers either sold raffle tickets, or solicitated commitments for food donations or made speeches to help publicize the camp. A local film studio donated their skills by developing a 5 minute-16mm film, produced by an area TV news team that was filmed live during EOC-I. Indeed, the inhibitions associated with planning a first time project were reduced in planning EOC-II, in the light of our earlier success.

Extensive methodological adjustments were necessary to acquire the fine grain data necessary to specify and define the changes within some of the individual campers that occurred as a function of the intervention mechanism. Our empirical goal was to expose elder campers to a heterogeneous battery of volunteers in order to investigate the following experimental questions: 1) Can we replicate our initial findings? 2) Can we determine exactly what occurred to these individuals that did not appear to manifest measurable change due to the camp? 3) Can we establish a preliminary questionaire that assesses self-management skills acquired during the EOC-II?

In order to select an appropriate measurement instrument, we compared the goals of two mutually diverse psychological models: that of behaviorism vs. behavioral ecology. Behavioral psychology purports to analyze behavioral responses so that reinforcement techniques can be employed to alter or change emitted response patterns. The underlying blind spot of behavior psychology is that it does not deal with motivational issues but only concerns itself with affecting or altering selected emitted responses. Taking the elderly individual "where he's at", however, could reveal an individual with an organic brain syndrome, or a psychoses associated with arteriosclerosis (Busse, 1973) or a diabetic personality any of which can render a person physically or psychologically deficient to emit, the expected behavioral change that was earmarked for reinforcement (Rebok & Hoyer, 1977). Therefore, an intervention mechanism often meets with unintended consequences or effects within or between certain environmental and interpersonal contexts.

An ecological perspective, on the other hand, acknowledges that the unintended indirect or "side effects" are generally likely in an experimental setting (Willems, 1973, 1974). One problem often overlooked when working with groups is the existence of contingenices more powerful than the change techniques of the behavior modifier (Reppucci & Saunders, 1974). A liberalized behavioral analysis approach is clearly applicable in gerontological practice where complex person-environment interactions are frequent. The proposed ecological model, which demands an integration and "working together" of various approaches, provides the gerontologist with a viable means of conceptualizing and studying the dynamic person-context interrelationships occurring within the EOC (Rebok & Hoyer, 1977).

EOC-II VOLUNTEERS

The EOC-II was held June 2-4, 1976 with 77 elder aged participating. The Springfield College Campgrounds were utilized by the campers. 12 of the campers in year two were repeaters from EOC-I.. 10 of the 12 repeaters accepted assignments as voluntary cabin coordinators responsible for reporting the whereabouts of the four people from their log cabin during each of the meals. Five additional cabin coordinators were recruited after the campers had selected and settled into their cabin accomodations.

The non-elderly voluntary monitors were assigned each hour to attend all classes in order to tape record the proceedings. In the end, 38 hours of tape recorded sessions were produced during the three days of programmed activity. Each hour of recorded activity required up to 20 hours of voluntary time in order to transcribe the tapes and type the proceedings. At the present time, only six hours of tapes have been completed. These six hours of tapes were randomly selected for experimental purposes and analyzed for interaction frequencies between staff and campers.

The characteristics of others that volunteered at the EOC-II can be specified as follows: there were 26 volunteers, who were 60 years of age or more, who contributed 81 hours of leadership responsibility. The 26 people were drawn from the social services sector through RSVP, Massachusetts Association of Older Americans, College faculty and State Commonwealth Service Corpsman. The material treated by this segment of the voluntary staff included: Limbering up after 60 years, Oral History Techniques, Sociology of Aging, Badmitton for fun and health, Boxing Exhibition, What it is to be Elderly in 1976 vs. 1966, and a Square Dance Class and Exhibition.

There were 10 professionals and college lecturers who contributed 23 hours of small seminar classes. The material that was treated by these volunteers was entitled: Nutrition and Eating for One, "A View of Africa" slide show, The Pharmacist and Drug Reactions in the elderly, Equal Rights and Older People, Self Defense and the Older Person, What do your dreams mean? Oral History Reflections, Senior Power, A walk in Nature, and'Age Discrimination, The Law and How it Affects You'.

Nine other professionals were attracted from the social services network within the region. 17 hours of voluntary leadership training was offered in the following topics: Intergenerational experiences among VISTA Volunteers, Consumer Protection of the Older Victim and the Attorney General's Office, Exercise Class, Nutrition and the Elderly, Hampden County House of Corrections-Update, How to be Concerned with the Needs and Rights of Others, and the Neighborhood Watch Group by the Holyoke and Chicopee City Police Departments.

Subjects Ss were self selected from participants in Title VII nutrition centers, ACTION sponsored programs, and local community groups. 31 Ss were referred from three separate T-VII projects operating in broad areas of Region I of the State of Massachusetts. 26 Ss were referred through three separate RSVP projects and 17 Ss were referred through the Regional Foster Grandparents program. 3 Ss were associated with Golden Agers, A.A.R.P. and the local Council on Aging.

There were 11 males and 66 females. The average age was 73 years, and the age range was 60-85. 8 Ss who were married attended camp together. Three people were married but their mate was unable to attend. 17 Ss were single. 4 Ss were widowers and 45 Ss were widows.

17 Ss did not stay overnight during EOC-II. 60 Ss completed the 3 days and 2 nights of the EOC-II.

Procedures

Pre and post test measures were accomplished by all referral sources using a Stevens scaling procedure. One week prior to the camp the referral person was asked to confidentially rate the amount of volunteering of each S. Using a scale from 1 - 10 where 1 indicated no observed volunteer behavior and 10 indicated 40 hours or more per week. Post test observations were scheduled for 4, 8 and 12 month intervals. The scaling of observed volunteer behavior by a referral person that sees the volunteer at least once per week was accomplisned in order to independently replicate our findings from EOC-I. Those Ss that participated in both camps were not included in the results of the replication study.

Six of the 38 recorded hours have been transcribed and analyzed to determine the frequency of interaction among class participants, or between leader and participants i.e. question asking. During EOC-II 3 classes were running simultaneously and Ss were assigned randomly to the three sections. However, in practice Ss were told to attend any class that interests them. Ss were encouraged to decide for themselves the worth of various environmental events. The use of self determination strategies is a promising ecological technique for preventing the occurence of costly, unwanted or unforseen side effects. A comparison of 2 groups was completed. Group B was comprised of those that stayed only days. The average response frequency of interaction among the participants was plotted against three class sizes.

A questionaire was completed with the assistance of naive research aides (see Table 3). The use of the questionaire was employed in order to shed light on the question of whether the camp encouraged new friendships and new coping mechanisms. We established a questionaire oriented towards differentiating characteristics related to those that did not demonstrate voluntary behavior during the post test period. Questions 1-15 were completed as part of the pre test measure one month prior to camp. During the subsequent year following the camp the Ss were reinterviewed at their home after 4, 8 and 12 months. The final post test measure has not been completed at the time of publication.

Place Table 3 about here

The average response measures on a scaling test for positive communications, i.e. Question #9 face to face, telephone and letter writing preferences were plotted against time in months. Four unequal sized groups were compared: Day Camp N=17, Overnight camp (N=60), Volunteers (N=32), and Non Volunteers (N=34). The averaged scaled response for other communication types, i.e. third party and simply being alone, was plotted against time in months.

RESULTS

EOC-II data tended to support conclusions reached after EOC-I. The post test analysis revealed that 49 percent of the aged campers demonstrated two or more hours per week increase in voluntary behavior by month four. The results of the repeated measures procedure accomplished at the end of eight months revealed that 27 percent of the campers sustained the dramatic improvement in voluntary action. The results, taken together, indicate positive support of the EOC model. The data tends to replicate our initial findings.

The specific characteristics of the Ss that showed an increase in voluntary behavior include 91 percent of the marrieds, 50 percent of the widowers, 38 percent of the widows. The widowed women under 70 years of age were most likely to show an increase in volunteer behavior compared to the older widows. The results of the 8 month repeated measures observation suggests that married and widower characteristics were associated with sustained voluntary action.

In summary, our evidence from EOC-II tends to confirm the initial findings that about about half of the campers learned and practiced the art of volunteering during the first four months. However, about 1/3 of the total campers actually sustain their improved voluntary behavior after eight months.

Preliminary analysis of the tape recorded proceedings, although not complete, has revealed a number of interesting trends especially as they relate to Ss that did not manifest changed voluntary behavior as perceived by the referral person. In six hours of recorded proceedings, we have identified 31 of the 77 Ss interacting among themselves or interacting between the leader and themselves. 84 percent of the interacters were made up of people that showed no behavioral change as manifested by voluntary action. 77 percent of the campers with three or more recorded interactions among participants manifested no change in voluntary behavior in the post test measures (See fig. 1). Day Camp participants clearly were more likely to be interacting in the classes as compared to the overnight campers' class behavior.

place Figure 1 about here

Data from the questionaire revealed several interesting characteristics associated with those that do not manifest voluntary action responses. Non volunteers are much more likely to be people that were born and grew up in the same area where they are spending their retirement. Volunteers were much more likely to be people that did not grow up in the same area as they were spending their retirement.

place Figure 2A & B about here

An analysis of Fig. 2A shows a dramatic improvement in the reported use of positive communication channels by the non volunteering group that attended camp. Figure 2B. reflects a clear decline in the preference to use other forms of communication for the non volunteering group. Generally, the results show an overall lowered preference for third party communication and solitude.

DISCUSSION

The three experimental questions objectified for the EOC II can be answered affirmatively with the evidence presented. 1.Our empirical data tends to support the initial findings of EOC I with some additional clarification. 2. Those individuals that did not manifest voluntary behavior after EOC II were observed to be highly motivated towards interacting with their peers during camp. 3. In addition, the questionnaire provided some startling evidence that a major unintended effect of camp participation was an increased preference for active verbal communication instead of passivity in communication.

An ecological perspective is highly suggestive that the aged who do not opt for organized voluntary behavior were motivated to interact exclusively with their peers in order to facilitate new acquaintances and adjust to the losses associated with senescence. The benefit of developing new companions and support systems encourages self management among the elderly.

Future research is needed to improve the sensitivity of the measurement questionnaire in order to seperate the characteristics associated with attraction among elderly non volunteers, i.e. cabin mate selection. The power of the EOC concept to promote extensive volunteerism among the aged needs to be extended in order to enhance the positive aspects of heightened self determination skills. In short, data gathered through EOC II suggests that summer programming can attract major numbers of older people by emphasizing nature, learning and volunteer opportunities.

Table 1. Self Reporting Scale. The self reporting scale was filled in by the aid after reading the entire list titled category A. The Ss were asked to describe their day by indicating, with a yes or no, whether they spent any time recently in any of the activities listed. The Ss were told that this information would assit us in planning the daily camp schedule.

A	B	
Sleeping	Yes	NO
Eating	Yes	No
Sitting	Yes	No
Reading	Yes	No
Volunteering	Yes	No
Writing	Yes	No
Relaxing	Yes	No
Employment	Yes	No
Communiting	Yes	No
Walking	Yes	No
Talking on the telephone	Yes	No
Praying or at Church	Yes	No
Helping family or friends	Yes	No
Leisure games	Yes	No
Housekeeping	Yes	No
Grooming	Yes	No
Vacationing	Yes	No
Other	Yes	No

Table 2. The observed percentage of change in volunteer behavior among 20 aged Subjects that participated in the Elder Overnight Camp I. The measures were made during the follow up year after the camp ended.

VOLUNTEER BEHAVIOR	MONTH 4	MONTH 8	MONTH 12
Hourly volunteer output increased by 2 hours per week.	.55	.30	.15
Hourly volunteer output stayed the same in the pre and post tests.	. 35	.25	.20
Hourly volunteer output went down in the post test from the pre test level.	.10	.10	.05

Table 3. Measurement questionnaire employed during the pre and post test period of the EOC II.

1. Subject____________
2. Referral source____________________
3. Contact person in an emergency____________________ Phone:__________
4. Place of birth____________________Date_________
5. Did you grow up in the Western Mass. area? Y N
6. Marital status: Married Single Widow Widower
7. What program topic is most interesting to you? 1........22
8. What program topic is least interestingto you? 1........22
9. What method of communication do you use?

Face to face communication	1	2	3	4
Telephone communication	rarely	"	"	frequently
Letter writing communication	"	sometimes	often	"
Third party communication	"	"	"	"
Simply being alone	"	"	"	"

10. How many family members do you communicate with during an average week? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 __
11. How many friends or acquaintances do you communicate with during average week? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 __
12. Would any or your family or friends be interested in learning more about camp? Y N
13. Do you have someone you would like to take to camp? Y N
14. Of the people on the roster do you know any of these people as family, friends or acquaintances? Y N
15. If yes then how many? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 __

During the year that followed the camping event all Ss were reinterviewed at their home after four months and eight month intervals and asked the following questions:

16. Are you planning to attend camp next year ? Y N
17. Do you communicate with any people you met at camp? Y N
18. How many people that you met at camp have you had face to face communication with again since camp ended? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 __
19. How many people that you met at camp have you called on the telephone since camp ended? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 __
20. How many people that you met at camp have you written a letter to? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 ___
21. How many people that you met at camp have you tried to contact through others? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 ___
22. Do you sit home alone much? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
23. Do you volunteer your time anywhere? Y N
24. Could you volunteer your time more? Y N
25. How many family members do you communicate with during an average week? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 __
26. How many friends or acquaintances do you communicate with during an average week? 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 __
27. What method of communication do you use?

Face to face communication	1	2	3	4
Telephone communication	rarely	sometimes	often	frequently
Letter writing	"	"	"	"
Third party message communication		"	"	"
Simply being alone	"	"	"	"

Figure 1. A comparison study of two groups of 17 aged Subjects. Group A was randomly selected from the 60 Ss that attended the EOC-II and stayed overnight. Group B included 17 Ss that were attending the EOC-II as a day camp program. The average response frequency of interaction among participants was compared as a function of class size during tape recorded proceedings.

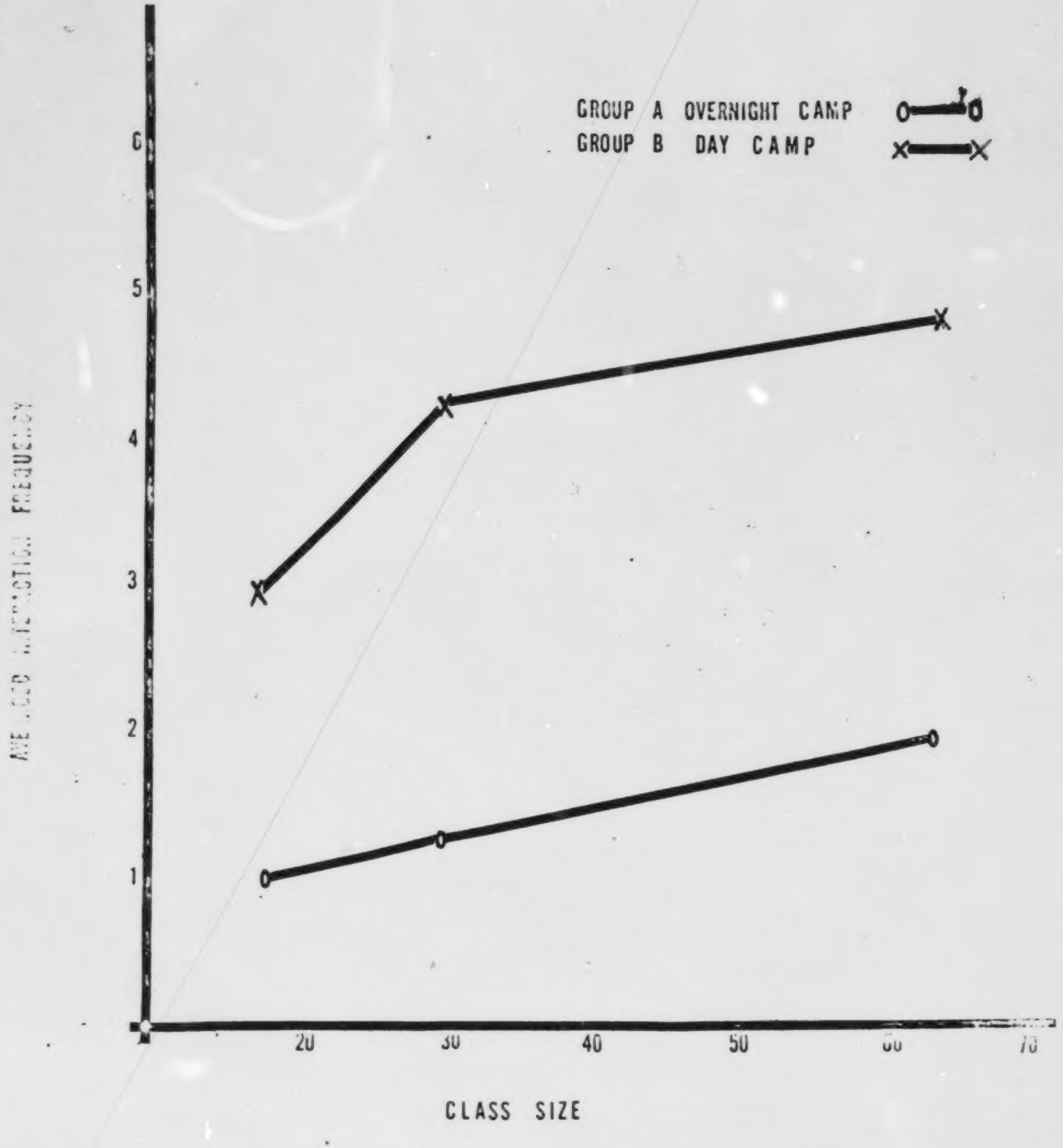

GROUP A OVERNIGHT CAMP
GROUP B DAY CAMP
AVERAGED INTERACTION FREQUENCY
1
2
3
4
5
6
20
30
40
50
60
70
CLASS SIZE

Figure 2A, 2B. A comparison of scaled responses among four unequal sized groups: Group DC-N=17, OC-N=60, V-N=32 and NV-N=34. Figure 2A. The averaged responses of multiple scaling measures from three positive communication preferences obtained in a repeated measures procedure. 2B. The averaged scaled responses for two other communication preferences obtained in a repeated measures procedure.

FIG. 2A

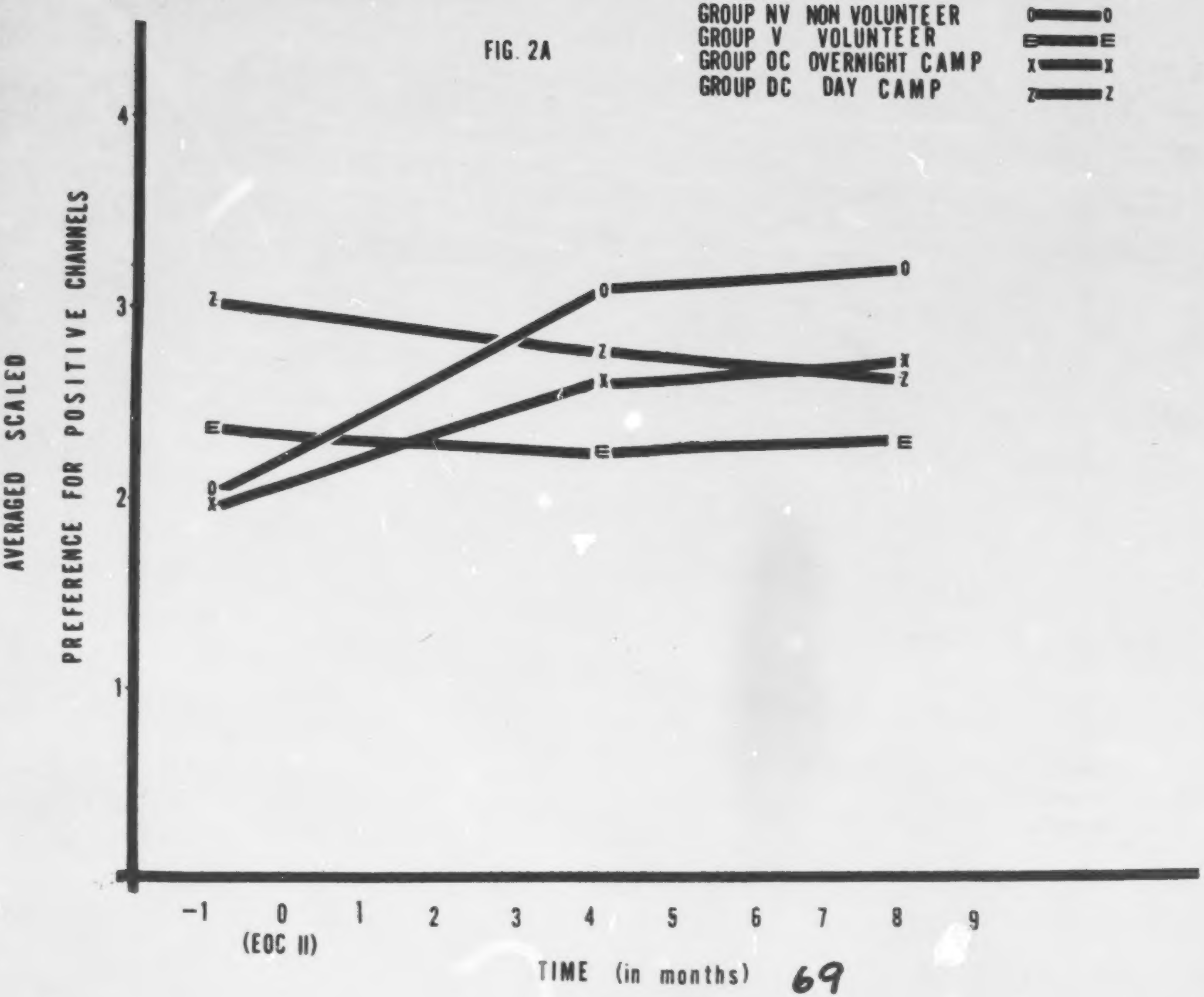
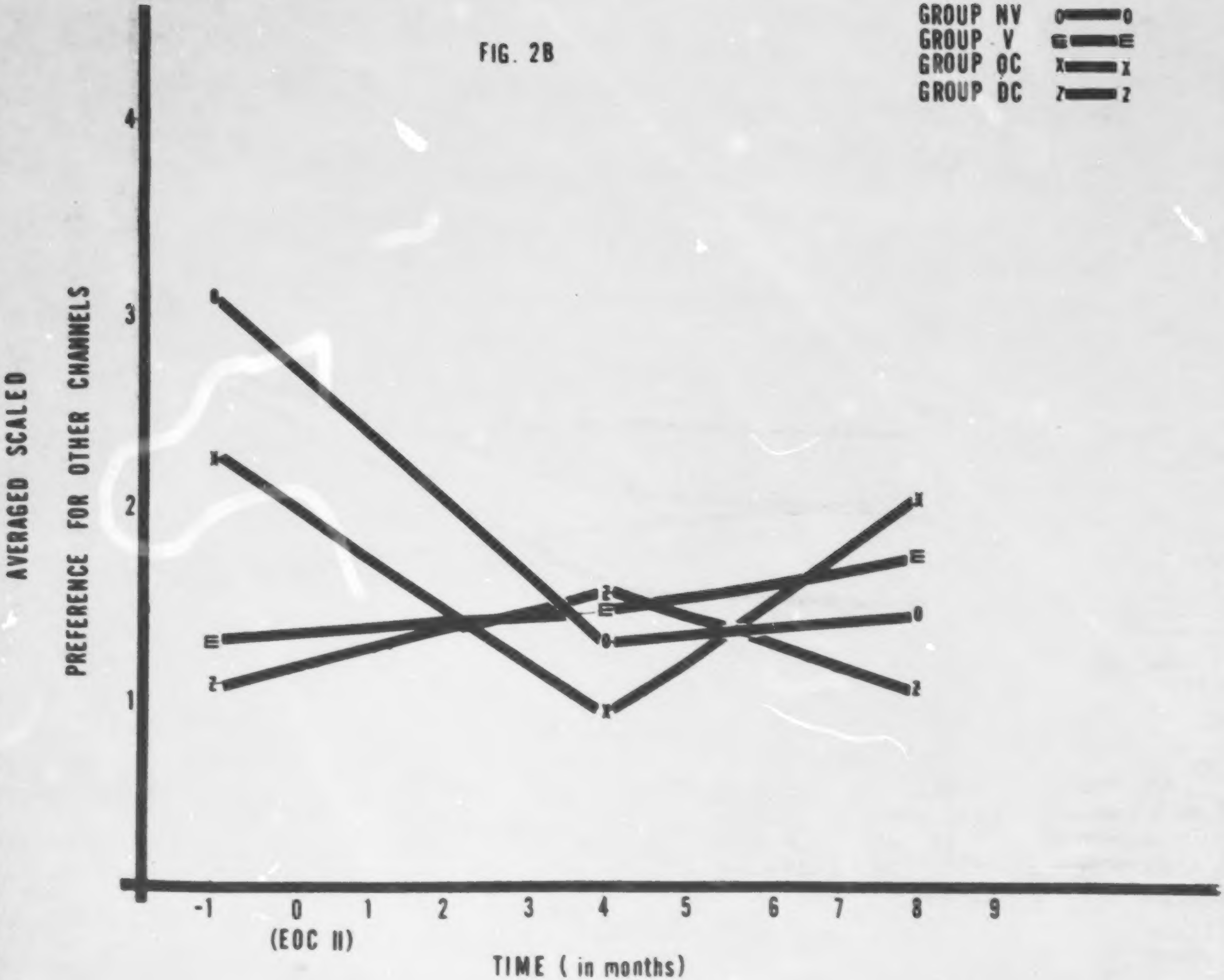

GROUP NV NON VOLUNTEER O——O
GROUP V VOLUNTEER E——E
GROUP OC OVERNIGHT CAMP X——X
GROUP DC DAY CAMP Z——Z
AVERAGED SCALED
PREFERENCE FOR POSITIVE CHANNELS
4
3
2
1
-1
0
(EOC II)
1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
TIME (in months)
Z
O
X
E
O
Z
X
E
O
X
Z
E

FIG. 2B


GROUP NV O—O
GROUP V E—E
GROUP OC X—X
GROUP DC Z—Z
AVERAGED SCALED
PREFERENCE FOR OTHER CHANNELS
4
3
2
1
-1
0
(EOC II)
1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
TIME (in months)

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THE CHALLENGE OF VOLUNTEER COMMITMENT: WHY VOLUNTEERS DROP-OUT AND SOME SUGGESTIONS FOR PREVENTION

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In this paper, I wish to discuss the problem of community service volunteers who do not fulfill their initial commitments. Emphasis in the voluntary action movement has been given to the recruitment and placement of volunteers and relatively little attention has been given to examining those variables which might encourage volunteers to drop-out soon after they have been placed. It is my contention that the identification and modification of those variables are crucial to the positive growth of the volunteer movement.

Since beginning active involvement in the volunteer movement in 1970, I have been cognizant of the problems that arise when volunteers do not fulfill their initial commitments to community service. My concern for this problem increased when I became co-chairperson of Volunteer Clearing House (VCH) at the University of Kansas in 1972. Follow-up contacts with community agencies where volunteers had been placed by our organization revealed that many volunteers had simply stopped showing up, often after only a month or two of service. Conversations with personnel involved in the placement of volunteers in other areas have indicated that this problem is not unique to those volunteers placed through VCH. In a survey conducted by the Voluntary Action Center (1976) in Kansas City, Missouri, it was found that of 50 agencies responding, half of them reported that their average length of volunteer service was less than one year, with half of those agencies reporting the average length of volunteer service as one to five months. In many instances, volunteers may be more trouble than their worth. In the same survey, when asked to report the disadvantages of utilizing volunteers, agencies most frequently reported that volunteers often were not dependable and required too much staff time. The purpose of the preceding statement is not to discredit the work of the many dedicated and dependable volunteers now serving our communities, but rather, to point out that lack of commitment is not something which characterizes only a small handful of volunteers and that this is, indeed, an important issue. In addressing this issue, I will attempt to identify four factors which I believe contibute to a lack of commitment in many volunteers, and then offer some suggestions for action that may help prevent many volunteers' premature withdrawal from community service.

Due to a lack of research literature on volunteer commitment, the comments which follow are based upon personal observations, my own informal discussions with volunteers, and a small pilot study conducted by myself under the direction of Dr. C. Daniel Batson at the University of Kansas in 1973. Before continuing, I will offer a brief summary of this study, which will be referred to as the Commitment Study. The study was an attempt to discover what characteristics tend to be associated with community service volunteers who fulfill their initial commitments as opposed to those who do not. The participants, 38 community service volunteers, were administered a questionnaire designed to obtain information concerning a variety of personality, situational, and background variables. Questionnaires were administered to volunteers at orientation meetings held during their first week of work as a volunteer. Three months later, volunteer coordinators were contacted in order to discover which volunteers were still working and which were not. Participants were then divided into two groups--committed and non-committed. On the basis of information obtained from the questionnaire, the two groups were compared on a variety of variables. Results indicate that those volunteers who were committed (those who were still working three months later) were less likely to be receiving class credit, to have the volunteer experience be relevant to their future occupation, and to be living in a dormitory. In addition, those volunteers working inthe crisis center were more likely to be committed than those serving in the Big Brother/Sister and Headstart programs.

The Commitment Study was exploratory in nature and was based on the behavior of only 38 student volunteers in one community. Consequently, the extent of generalize-ability is questionable and definite conclusions based solely on these findings should be avoided. However, the results of the study coupled with my own natural observations have encouraged me to draw the forthcoming conclusions. Four factors which I believe contribute largely to the lack of commitment exhibited by many community service volunteers are as follows:

1) The absence of an adequate social support system within many agencies is one important factor. By this, I mean that many agencies leave volunteers socially isolated from staff and other volunteers, offering them little access to the benefits derived from meaningful social interaction between those who share similar roles. This social support is particularly important to college student volunteers, many of whom have recently left family and friends for the first time and may be seeking satisfaction of needs for affiliation and social interaction via the volunteer experience. The finding of the Commitment Study that volunteers in the crisis center exhibited the most commitment supports this contention. Volunteers at the crisis center were afforded frequent opportunities for informal social interaction and many friendships developed as a result. These frequent doses of social support have, I believe, contributed greatly to the crisis center's low turnover in volunteers.

2) The fact that many agencies do not offer volunteers significant opportunities for meaningful input and involvement into their programs is a second factor. Because volunteers are not paid staff members it is often assumed that they need not be afforded the same considerations that other staff members receive. Many volunteers wish to have greater input into their agency than that which comes with their prescribed volunteer role. The sense of belonging and positive self-esteem which result from meaningful involvement such as attending staff meetings and designing program innovations can not help but encourage volunteers to continue service. In contrast, volunteers who work in agencies which do not listen to volunteers and which do not offer opportunities for involvement will frequently become discouraged and withdraw from service. Opportunities for involvement were abound in the crisis center of the Commitment Study. Numerous committees made up solely of volunteers coupled with voting rights on all issues afforded volunteers various opportunities to become involved with the center in capacities outside of the initially prescribed volunteer work role.

3) A third contributing factor is when a volunteer lacks sufficient internal motivation. Although social rewards are condusive to commitment, reliance upon them as the sole motivation for community service is usually insufficient to maintain commitment. Accordingly, the committed volunteer will probably have a more internal motivation such as a conviction to the principle of helping others or the reduction of guilt tied to an awareness of one's own fortune in relation to others. These internal motivations are in contrast to external motivations such as class credit, money, or social reinforcers such as praise and awards. In the Commitment Study, we found that those volunteers receiving class credit for service were less likely to fulfill their initial commitments.

4) The fourth factor may be described as unrealistic volunteer role expectations. Many volunteers enter community service with an unrealistic picture of what the volunteer experience will be like. For those potential volunteers whose fantasies of the volunteer experience include abundant social rewards and little recognition of the negative aspects of community service, early withdrawal from service is a likely eventuality. For example, my own observations indicate that most college student volunteers are from middle class backgrounds, and yet, most are placed in agencies which deal with clientele from lower class backgrounds. Many volunteers enter service unprepared for volunteer-client conflict which often results from a clash in class-bound values. A volunteer who expects to receive gratitude and praise from clients may, in fact, receive insult from those who perceive him/her as part of an oppressive social system. Confronted with such unanticipated shocks to their expectations, many well meaning volunteers are destined to withdraw in defeat.

Note that the first two factors mentioned are qualities of the agency or program within which the volunteer works, and the latter two are personal qualities of the volunteer. Obviously, increasing volunteer commitment is a multidimensional challenge and requires a conserted effort on the part of all persons concerned with the recruitment, training, placement, or supervision of community service volunteers. I will now offer some suggestions for confronting this challenge, based largely on interventive approaches that have been initiated at VCH.

The challenge of increasing social support for volunteers may be met in several ways. First, agencies should schedule periodic meetings allowing volunteers to exchange ideas and discuss issues. In addition, paid staff members of agencies should be advised to increase interaction with and support of volunteers. Workshops designed to increase agency staff members' sensitivity to the needs of volunteers would be beneficial. Further, either an intra or inter-agency sponsored volunteer recognition day will provide some social support for volunteers. Finally, a staff member from the agency or a volunteer referral center should be designated as a volunteer representative to act as a liaison between agency personnel and the volunteer when conflicts arise.

Opportunities for increased meaningful involvement may be afforded volunteers by those agencies which offer the volunteer a chance to work in a capacity beyond the prescribed volunteer role. Depending on the specific nature of the agency, such opportunities should include allowing volunteers to attend staff meetings, providing volunteers with formal channels for input such as committee membership, and encouraging volunteers to propose or conduct program and service innovations. It is often necessary to remind agencies that volunteers are staff members and deserve to be treated accordingly.

By now it should be obvious that I believe many agencies and programs which utilize volunteers need to make considerable changes in either attitudes towards or policies concerning their use of volunteers. University based volunteer referral centers such as VCH can play a major role in assuring that these changes are made. Volunteer referral centers may offer agencies advisement and guidance in the development of volunteer programs. Resistant agencies and programs may be coerced to conform to suggested guidelines by volunteer referral centers whose referrals are contingent upon compliance with such guidelines. There the role of the referral center is that of a change agent rather than merely an information center.

Personal qualities of volunteers which inhibit commitment should also be dealt with. It is important that appropriate orientation and training take place before volunteers make their initial commitments to service. The motivations of volunteers may be explored through mandatory participation in orientation-counseling sessions. The volunteer, under the guidance of a trained staff member representing either the referral center or the agency, is encouraged to explore his or her own motivation for volunteering. I have found that many potential volunteers have neglected to do so and are often hard-pressed for answers to questions concerning their motivations for service. This exercise may result in a decision not to volunteer. Another advantage of the orientation-counseling session lies in its function as a screening process. Volunteers who appear to lack sufficient internal motivation for service can be referred to programs where consequences of premature volunteer withdrawal may be less detrimental to clientele or agency staff. This is particularly relevant to those volunteers whose primary motivation is the receipt of class credit. In such instances, it is crucial that the exact nature of the volunteer's motivation is clearly understood by agency personnel so that an appropriate role may be assigned. Agency staff members who are used to the more "traditional" volunteer should be cautioned that commitment for volunteers receiving class credit may end with the semester.

Finally, unrealistic volunteer expectations may be minimized by appropriate and thorough volunteer orientation. Volunteer orientation workshops directed largely at breaking down unrealistic expectations should be held by volunteer referral centers prior to placement. Similar workshops can be held on a smaller scale by individual agencies or programs. The presentation of relevant films, guest speakers, and experienced volunteers combine to allow volunteers vicarious exposure to the negative and often discouraging aspects of volunteer service. Volunteers should also be requested to visit the agency or agencies within which they are considering service.

In summary, the determinants of volunteer commitment are numerous and complex. No single formula for intervention can ensure commitment in community service volunteers. One major purpose of this discussion is to alert those in the field of volunteerism to the importance of actively addressing the challenge of promoting volunteer commitment. This is a challenge which transcends the mere recruitment and placement of volunteers, and one which emphasizes qualitative rather than quantitative dimensions of volunteerism. This implies that many volunteer coordinators and referral workers may need to reassess their own roles in the recruitment, placement, and training of volunteers. I have attempted to outline some suggestions that may stimulate and facilitate that reassessment. I look forward to hearing of innovations implemented by others in their own attempts to promote volunteer commitment.

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STUDENT VOLUNTEERISM AND PSYCHOLOGICAL GROWTH

Virgil Peterson

"We build the road while the road builds us." This slogan of the volunteer Yugoslavian Youth Brigade suggests the mutuality of volunteer experience. As the volunteer gives, he is also getting. He is growing, developing, enlarging himself, making himself more aware of the world around him, increasing his effectiveness for the future, cultivating his sense of identity. Whether involved in building a literal road or a figurative one--tutoring a child working with a probationer, or helping someone who is blind, disabled, or otherwise disadvantaged--the volunteer builds himself.

But in another sense the slogan misleads. It suggests a simple cause and effect relationship between volunteering and personal growth. If this; then that. If A; then B. If one volunteers; one grows. All who have worked with volunteers, or, indeed, examined their own experience, know that this oversimplifies. It reduces a complex process to the simplicity of a two step formula.

Reactions to volunteering are varied and largely unpredictable. I can no more explain the response of the student who wrote, "Volunteering was the greatest thing that ever happened to me. Now I know who I am and where I'm going," than that of another who wrote "I started out thinking it was a good idea, but it turned out to be a waste of time."

To enlarge my understanding of volunteer experience I recently applied the ideas of our psychologists to some responses to volunteering. The responses I examined came from a questionnaire mailed to 370 former student volunteers who graduated from West Virginia University between 1968 and 1972. I examined unpublished studies from Michigan State University and Boston University. I mailed requests for student statements to National Student Volunteer consultants and received back material from El Camino College, Florida State, and Lehigh. And finally I examined field reports journals, evaluations, letters and other miscellaneous responses that have come my way during seven years of advising a student volunteer program.

Each of the psychologists I applied -- Maslow, Erikson, Loevinger, and Kohlberg -- sees our lives in terms of a process culminating, ideally, in the full realization of our humanness. Abraham Maslow describes a hierarchy of needs beginning with the physiological need for air, water, food, shelter, sleep and sex. When these are satisfied, a higher level might be reached, the level of safety and security. Next higher is love and belongingness, and above love and belongingness is self esteem and the esteem of others. Finally, at the top of the hierarchy is a list of "growth" needs which by themselves are not hierarchical but rather of equal importance. They are: Truth, goodness, beauty, aliveness, individuality, perfection, necessity, completion, justice, order, simplicity, richness, playfulness, effortlessness, self sufficiency, meaningfulness.

/Table I about here/

Jane Loevinger is interested in ego development. Ego she defines as "the unity of personality, individuality, the method of facing problems, opinion about oneself and the problems of life and the whole attitude toward life." For her, as for Kohlberg, development is sequential, the stages must be taken one after another. As in baseball, you cannot skip bases.

Below is a table from her book MEASURING EGO DEVELOPMENT. Without digging deeper into her theory, the table will not be entirely clear. But I present it in full, without further elaboration, in order that you can apply all that is clear to you.

/Table II about here/

The third of the psychologists I kept in mind, as I looked at data from student volunteers, was Lawrence Kohlberg. (For a thorough examination of the implications of his thought see Richard Graham, 1973) Lawrence Kohlberg identifies six stages of moral development which, like Jane Loevinger's stages of ego development, are sequential. Further, he believes these stages to be universal since he has been able to identify them in the developmental patterns of several different cultures. Kohlberg's definitions are as follows:

/Table III about here/

The fourth psychologist I examined is Erik Erikson whose views will appear in due time below.

In the W.V.U. study I tried to gain some measure of the student's own impression of his growth by giving brief summaries of some of the growth characteristics listed by Maslow, Loevinger, and Kohlberg. Then I requested a "yes" or "no" answer to whether the student felt that he had grown in the terms of each theorist as a result of the volunteer experience. To provide some basis of comparison I asked also for the respondent to indicate whether volunteering had contributed to his intellectual growth.

/Table IV about here/

THE THEMES OF GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT

While suggestive of the value of volunteer experience, the W.V.U. study lacked subtlety. What I tabulated was yes or no answers on a form. To move closer to the actual experience, I examined the words of the volunteers; -- the journals, field reports, evaluations, etc. While reading these, I tried to hold in mind the structures of growth represented by the psychologists and to discover whether those structures emerge as recurring themes in the student statements. They do. Among the more consistent themes are these: Self esteem and esteem by others (Maslow); Helpfulness(Loevinger); Achievement (Maslow and Loevinger); Love and Belongingness (Maslow); Respect for autonomy (Loevinger and Kohlberg); Respect for individuality (all).

For example, the words of a volunteer at Kendall Home for Juvenile

Delinquents in Miami, Florida:

> I cannot express how much I have learned and how much I have grown up. I received immeasurable amounts of personal satisfaction from the work. To me nothing could be as rewarding. After changing majors many times, I have no doubts that a career in social work is perfect for me. Such work makes me feel more like a complete person.

What values here? Meaningfulness, richness, aliveness (Maslow). Role conception, self-fulfillment, self in social context (Loevinger).

Another wrote of his experience in West Virginia:

> This spring I am graduating in English literature, a study in which I find great personal joy. It took me a long time to understand that a man has the right to that which merely brings him intellectual satisfaction; that is, a man does not have to feel guilty about all activities that are for personal reward only. Being a part of SAAP -- and SAAP a part of me -- has helped me to realize, however, that there is much more that I can and must do. I will return to this state some day, and when I do so, it will be to teach that subject which I have found to bring me great personal satisfaction. However, I will also be returning in order to find those areas where I may be of benefit to this land and its people, whether that be by helping them lobby for better food and housing or to read Shakespeare.

The values of Maslow and Loevinger are here in abundance. Kohlberg also is present in the attitude toward social change.

> The individual makes a clear effort to define moral values and principles that have validity and application apart from the authority of the groups or persons holding them and apart from the individual's identification with the groups....Right action tends to be defined in terms of general individual rights and of standards that have been critically examined and agreed upon by the whole society. There is a clear awareness of the relativism of personal values and opinions and a corresponding emphasis upon procedural rules for reaching consensus.

The student's sensitivity to social problems and his intention to work within the system place him, to use Kohlberg's designation, at the "autonomous, or Principled level."

These recurring themes place the student's awareness at the advanced stages of ego development, self actualization, and moral development. It may be argued, "So what? Those levels are normal for students of college age." True. However the significance, I believe, consists in the fact that the volunteer experience activates these themes. And the activation is a requisite to future development.

Looked at from Maslow's perspective, these accounts mainly fall within "growth needs." They suggest that the more fundamental needs have been met. Further progress toward self-actualization depends upon the exercise of growth experiences.

But looked at from Kohlberg's point of view, development depends upon encounters which "incorporate reasoning and judgment a stage above that of the individual, along with reflection on these encounters." (Graham, 1973). This conclusion mandates both the experience and the match, i.e. each volunteer should be matched with an experience that can be resolved only by a higher order of reasoning and judgment than he is accustomed to, and it should provide the dialogue, or the opportunity for reflection, or some other stimulus to his growth.

In his essay, "The Golden Rule in the Light of New Insight," Erik Erikson speaks of the need for mutuality. "I would call mutuality a relationship in which partners depend on each other for the development of their respective strengths." And again:

> TRULY WORTHWHILE ACTS ENHANCE A MUTUALITY WHICH STRENGTHENS THE DOER EVEN AS IT STRENGTHENS THE OTHER. Thus, the "doer" and "the other" are partners in one deed. Seen in the light of human development, this means that the doer is activated in whatever strength is APPROPRIATE TO HIS AGE, STAGE AND CONDITION, even as he activates in the other the strength appropriate to HIS age, stage and condition. (1964)
>
> Understood this way, the Rule would say that it is best to do to another what will strengthen you even as it will strengthen him -- that is, what will develop his best potentials even as it develops your own.

For Erikson, then, it is insufficient merely to match the volunteer's age, stage and condition with the experience. The client's age, stage and condition must also be in focus and part of the calculations of the volunteer coordinator. But in making the match, what analysis development should we use? Loevinger's, Kohlberg's, or Erikson's or that of some other developmentalist. Our road seems to have dwindled to a maze of complicated paths.

I believe that we cannot yet hope to realize the Erikson ideal within the volunteer movement at the present time. Neither are the resources available nor is the state of the matching art sufficiently advanced for us to match with confidence. But the ideal of mutuality is a valuable one to sustain in our minds. The idea of mutuality, Erikson's addition to the Golden Rule, converges with the kernel insight in the Yugoslavian slogan. Volunteer and road/client both build and are built. In practice what kind of building occurs?

EXAMPLE NUMBER ONE - NANCY AND JANE.

Jane, Nancy's tutor, used Kenneth Koch's WISHES, LIES AND DREAMS to help motivate Nancy in reading and writing. The result was a highly imaginative series of poems. Of that experience, Jane wrote in a term paper:

> Nancy has noticeably improved, mostly through her own determination and willingness to work with records and flashcards. I only hope that her eagerness to please her teachers and parents in competitive fields...will not bury an imagination startling in its colorful depth, perception, and originality.
>
> In Nancy lives a beautiful person. For me she was not only a trip forward into a special individual but a conversation with hidden portions of myself. Nancy's images represent a world deeply hidden in childhood -- an island somehow cut off from the rest of existence. I hope that those poems helped her get in touch with herself. Perhaps their most important function is their usefulness in communicating itself to us in its purity, fear, and joy.
>
> I feel I learned more from Nancy than I could possibly have taught her. The opportunity to earn her friendship was a great and rare privilege.

Are not Jane and Nancy "partners in one deed?" And in that deed is there not mutuality, the strengthening of both? We do not have Nancy's reaction, but clearly, Jane grew, and if she did not enhance Nancy's strengths, at least she was solicitous of them. Is it too much to assume that Erikson, perhaps also Loevinger, would see that event as relevant to his theory of development?

EXAMPLE NUMBER TWO - TOM AND MCOWENS

From Tom's journal:

> At a tutoring session several weeks ago Barb discovered that the McOwens family did not have a refrigerator. She had visited their home one evening and discovered that their facilities were in terrible condition. They had a large freezer, but no refrigerator. She wanted to get the family the refrigerator, but she was not sure how to approach them on this touchy matter. She checked with several people about this problem and they offered her some suggestions. Finally she approached Kathy, the girl that she tutors, and asked her to mention the idea of her getting a refrigerator for them. The idea was well accepted and the McOwens had even been looking for one.
>
> After some work, Barb found a family that had a used refrigerator and would donate it if someone could pick it up. Barb asked Mickey if he could drive his van out and pick up the refrigerator. /They pick up the van and spend some time cleaning it before taking it to the McOwens./
>
> When we got there everyone was waiting excitedly as if they were getting a new toy. Mickey and I carried the refrigerator inside with some help from the boy I tutor. We placed it in the kitchen...
>
> At this time I began to look around the kitchen and into

> the adjacent rooms. The conditions were just unbelievable. There were holes in the ceiling and some of the walls. The house was dark and dirty with light coming only from the outside and from an old television. There was one mattress lying on the floor in the living room with no sheets or blankets on it. The only other piece of furniture I could see was a stuffed chair with most of the cloth missing, exposing the bare springs underneath. The other two rooms were too dark to really see anything specific.
>
> To say the least, I was shocked at what I was seeing. I could not imagine how six human beings could possibly live in these conditions. I never believed people lived like this. It was terrible.
>
> For the next two or three days, I reviewed my goals and aspirations for my life. I realized that what I considered normal living would be a king's palace to the McOwens. This changed and reinforced many of my ideas about life. I decided that if I was going to live a fulfilling life, that I was going to have to help people that were less fortunate than me.

What mutuality is here? In this event, what comes together is a family with Maslovian deficiencies and a young man ripe for a growth experience. Tom served others, but he saw service as necessary to his fulfillment. To realize his own strength, he must also contribute to the strengthening of others. If he is to be build himself, he must be a builder.

Following the paths of volunteers and placing over those paths the grids of psychologists, lead to two conclusions and two hypotheses:

CONCLUSIONS:

1) Volunteer service brings into play experiences which contribute to ego development, moral development, and self-actualization.

2) Precise matching of volunteer and client in terms of the needs or stage (however defined) of each is at present impossible not only because of inadequate resources, but because of insufficient understanding of human maturation.

HYPOTHESES:

1) Erikson's ideal of mutuality will become the ethic of voluntarism and permit voluntarism to transcend much of the traditional criticism. If the volunteer and his client are partners in a deed, then the deed itself becomes the focus of interest. We need no longer dwell on the role of the volunteer (is he condescending? being exploited? making a bad system tolerable?) or that of the client (is he being demeaned? reinforced in his dependency? exploited?) Their separate roles submerge in a mutually enhancing action. Their partnership is paramount.

2) The psychologies of Maslow, Kohlberg, and Loevinger merely portend cultural changes which will eventually permit man to realize the ethical ideal which Erikson sets before us. In his Preface to TOWARD A PSYCHOLOGY OF BEING, Maslow sees his psychology as "one facet of a

general Weltanschaung, a new philosophy of life, a new conception of man..." This psychology, he continues, seen in its cultural setting "suggests action and implies consequences. It helps to generate a way of life, not only for the person himself within his own private psyche, but also for the same person as a social being, a member of society. As a matter of fact, it helps us to realize how interrelated these two aspects of life really are."

As I thought of Maslow's interrelatedness, of Erikson's mutuality, of the experiences of Tom and Nancy and of the blunt wisdom of the Yugoslavian slogan, two sentences from Martin Buber came to me:

> "In the beginning is the relation."

and

> "Inscrutably involved, we live in the currents of universal reciprocity."

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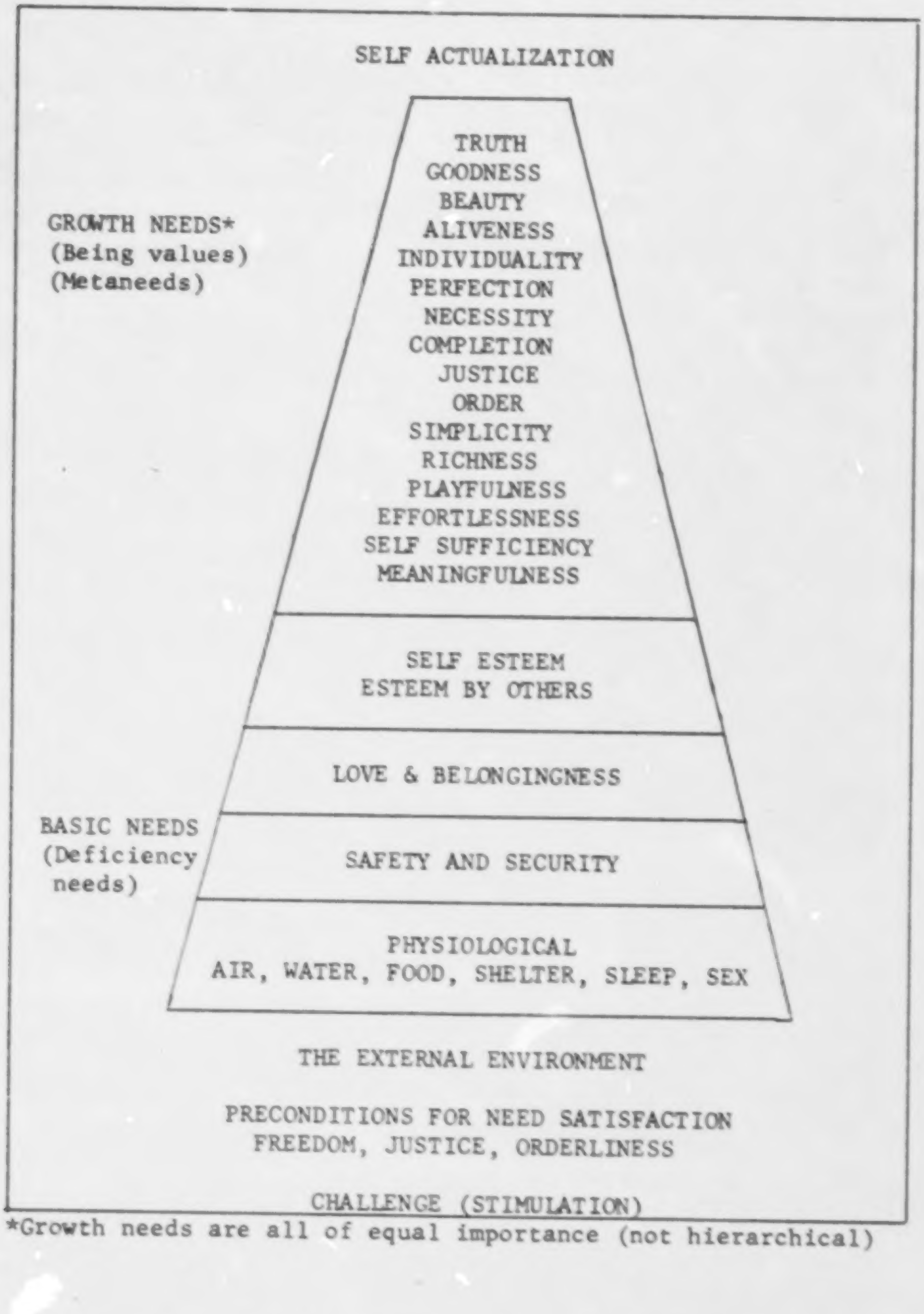
TABLE I

ABRAHAM MASLOW'S HIERARCHY OF NEEDS


SELF ACTUALIZATION
TRUTH
GOODNESS
BEAUTY
ALIVENESS
INDIVIDUALITY
PERFECTION
NECESSITY
COMPLETION
JUSTICE
ORDER
SIMPLICITY
RICHNESS
PLAYFULNESS
EFFORTLESSNESS
SELF SUFFICIENCY
MEANINGFULNESS
GROWTH NEEDS*
(Being values)
(Metaneeds)
SELF ESTEEM
ESTEEM BY OTHERS
LOVE & BELONGINGNESS
BASIC NEEDS
(Deficiency needs)
SAFETY AND SECURITY
PHYSIOLOGICAL
AIR, WATER, FOOD, SHELTER, SLEEP, SEX
THE EXTERNAL ENVIRONMENT
PRECONDITIONS FOR NEED SATISFACTION
FREEDOM, JUSTICE, ORDERLINESS
CHALLENGE (STIMULATION)

*Growth needs are all of equal importance (not hierarchical)

Frank G. Goble, The Third Force, The Psychology of Abraham Maslow,
(New York: Grossman Publishers, 1970), p. 50.

Table II

SOME MILESTONES OF EGO DEVELOPMENT

Stage	Code	Impulse Control, Character Development	Interpersonal Style	Conscious Preoccupations	Cognitive Style
Presocial	I-1		Autistic	Self vs. non-self	
Symbiotic			Symbiotic		
Impulsive	I-2	Impulsive, fear of retaliation	Receiving, dependent, exploitive	Bodily feelings, especially sexual and aggressive	Stereotypy, conceptual confusion
Self-protective	Δ	Fear of being caught, externalizing blame, opportunistic	Wary, manipulative, exploitive	Self-protection, wishes, things, advantage, control	
Conformist	I-3	Conformity to external rules, shame, guilt for breaking rules	Belonging, helping, superficial niceness	Appearance, social acceptability, banal feelings, behavior	Conceptual simplicity, stereotypes, clichés
Conscientious	I-4	Self-evaluated standards, self-criticism, guilt for consequences, long-term goals and ideals	Intensive, responsible, mutual, concern for communication	Differentiated feelings, motives for behavior, self-respect, achievements, traits, expression	Conceptual complexity, idea of patterning
Autonomous	I-5	Add: Coping with conflicting inner needs, toleration	Add: Respect for autonomy	Vividly conveyed feelings, integration of physiological and psychological, psychological causation of behavior, development, role conception, self-fulfillment, self in social context	Increased conceptual complexity, complex patterns, toleration for ambiguity, broad scope, objectivity
Integrated	I-6	Add: Reconciling inner conflicts, renunciation of unattainable	Add: Cherishing of individuality	Add: Identity	

NOTE.—"Add" means in addition to the description applying to the previous level.

From Jane Loevinger and Ruth Wessler, Measuring Ego Development, (San Francisco Jossey-Bass, Inc., 1970), pp. 10-11.

TABLE III

Lawrence Kohlberg, Stages of Moral Development

Basis of Judgment	Stages of Development	
Preconventional moral values reside in external, quasi-physical happenings, in bad acts, or in quasi-physical needs rather than in persons and standards	Stage I:	Obedience and punishment orientation. Egocentric deference to superior power or prestige, or a trouble-avoiding set. Objective responsibility.
	Stage II:	Naively egoistic orientation. Right action is that instrumentally satisfying one's own and occasionally other's needs. Awareness that value is relative to each person's needs and perspectives. Naive egalitarianism and orientation to exchange and reciprocity.
Conventional moral values reside in performing good or right roles, in maintaining the conventional order, and in meeting other's expectations	Stage III:	Orientation to approval and to pleasing and helping others. Conformity to stereotypical images of majority or natural role behavior, and judgment by intentions.
	Stage IV:	Orientation to doing one's duty and to showing respect for authority and maintaining the given social order for its own sake. Regard for earned expectations of others.
Postconventional moral values are derived from principles which can be applied universally	Stage V:	Contractual-legalistic orientation. Recognition of an arbitrary element in rules or expectations for the sake of agreement. Duty defined in terms of contract, general avoidance or violation of the will or rights of others, or of the majority will and welfare.
	Stage VI:	Orientation to conscience or principles, not only to ordained social rules but to principles of choice appealing to logical universality and consistency. Conscience is a directing agent, together with mutual respect and trust.

TABLE IV

From the W.V.U. study in which 370 questionnaires were mailed of which 19 went to wrong addresses, eighty-nine (25.4%) were returned.

TYPE OF GROWTH	PERCENT AFFIRMING VALUE OF VOLUNTEER EXPERIENCE	PERCENT DENYING VALUE OF VOLUNTEER EXPERIENCE
Intellectual development	81%	19%
Ego development (Loevinger)	89%	11%
Self Actualization (Maslow)	87%	13%
Moral development (Kohlberg)	85%	15%

The volunteer experience emerges clearly as being highly contributive in all areas but more contributive in ego development, self-actualization, and moral development than to intellectual development.

PATTERNS OF LEADERSHIP IN WOMEN'S VOLUNTARY ASSOCIATIONS: THE AUXILIARY AS A CASE IN POINT

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STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

In recent years volunteers and voluntary associations have assumed ever-more significant roles in the meeting of society's diverse needs. Now more than ever volunteers have become an integral part of the operation of many organizations such as the public schools, day care centers, branches of local government, health care delivery units and assistance programs for the young and the elderly. Voluntary organizations have greatly expanded in an attempt to enhance the quality of services in such public and private spheres of activity as community development, recreation, education, medical care and energy utilization.

As these elements of volunteerism have gained more importance in the functional relationships within our society, they have spawned a greater interest in their analysis and understanding. Many basic elements of the phenomena of volunteerism, so long neglected in social science research, have at long last become the targets of scientific investigation and study. Who engages in particular varieties of voluntary efforts? What organizational structures do formally established voluntary associations adopt? Who assumes positions of leadership in voluntary groups? What influence does non-voluntary role activities exert on the nature and form of voluntary efforts? These are but a few of the pertinent issues of volunteerism now under close scientific scrutiny. This paper is a report on current research which is an outgrowth of this expanding scientific concern in volunteerism.

In particular, this paper will seek to explore the patterns of leadership in a statewide women's auxillary in Georgia and those factors which influence these patterns of leadership. As voluntary associations have acquired more power in our contemporary society, it seems most relevant to better understand the processes whereby decision-making roles within these associations are allocated and the factors that influence this allocation process.

Previous research findings suggest several factors that are related to leadership. Arnold Rose (1962), in his comparison of group leaders and a cross-section of the general population, found that 75 per cent of the group leaders, as compared to 25 per cent of the general population, had at least some college education. He also found the leaders ranked themselves in the top three social classes.

Berelson and Steiner (1964) report that participation in voluntary associations in the United States is greater among married people with children and especially among people of more education and high socioeconomic status.

Nye (1963) found that women leadership in community organizations does appear to be related to employment status. He reports that less than two-fifths of the employed mothers hold an office or a committee chairmanship in any organization; whereas a majority of both non-employed and part-time employed indicated they maintained one or more such leadership positions.

Collison (1960) found that possession of children under five years of age was associated negatively with leadership. He found, in contrast to Rose, no correlation between leadership and occupation or leadership and education.

A study by Joseph Harry (1970) revealed that marriage and joint-spouse participation gives rise to high participation in voluntary associations.

STATEMENT OF HYPOTHESIS

The research for this paper focuses upon the relationship of factors suggested by previous studies to leadership within a state-wide women's auxiliary.

Hypotheses were formulated to predict the relationship between each factor and leadership within the voluntary association. From the findings of Rose and Berelson and Steiner related to education and social class, the following hypotheses were formulated:

Hypothesis 1: The higher the educational level of the respondent the more likely she is to hold a leadership position.

Hypothesis 2: The higher the respondent's socio-economic status the more likely she is to hold a leadership position.

Nye's study of the relationship between employment and leadership lead to the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 3: Women who are employed full-time are less likely to hold leadership positions than women who are not employed.

From the findings of Collison and Cooney research we deduce the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 4: Women with pre-school schildren are less likely to hold leadership positions than are women who have no children or who have older children.

Harry's findings concerning joint-spouse participation seem appropriate for a study of auxiliaries. Since the organization under study is an auxiliary to a men's organization, we might expect that leadership in the men's organization would affect leadership in the auxiliary. Therefore we propose the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 5: Women whose husbands hold offices in the men's organization are more likely to hold office than women whose husbands do not hold offices.

RESEARCH DESIGN

A cross-sectional survey was adopted as the design for this study. A questionnaire was sent to each of the 1600 members of a state-wide women's auxiliary. Of those questionnaires distributed 1211 were completed and returned, giving a return rate of 75%. Since not all respondents answered each question the totals for responses do not always equal 1211.

Membership in the auxiliary is limited to wives of members of the men's organization. The men must be between 21 and 35 years of age so we may expect our sample to be about the same age or slightly younger. The research instrument contained numerous questions about the respondent, her husband, her children, her interests, and her leadership positions.

The Hollingshead Two-Factor Index of Social Class was used to measure social class. Based upon his measures, the respondents were divided into 5 social classes. About 35% were in the top two classes, 45% in the middle class and only 20% belonged to the two lower classes.

Slightly more than half of the respondents had received some training beyond high school. Fifty-five per cent of the respondents were employed either part-time or full-time with the vast majority falling in the latter category. Eighty per cent of the respondents had one or more children.

FINDINGS

Preliminary analysis of the data produced a number of interesting findings.

The chi square method of data analysis was used to test the relationship between variables.

Hypothesis 1 was not supported. There were no significant differences between local leaders and non-leaders with regards to education. Leaders were no more likely to have training beyond high school than were non-leaders. (See Table 1). The same was not true however for state leaders. There were significant differences between local leaders and state leaders in terms of education. Only half of the local presidents had post high school training while 84% of the state leaders had some college training and 37% were college graduates. (See Table 2).

The second hypothesis concerning the relationship between social class and leadership was also not supported, though the trend is in the predicted direction. (See Table 3). Most of the local presidents came from the middle class with very few coming from the lower classes. The same type of relationship held true for state officers. Half of the state officers came from the top two classes. (See Table 4). Thus the relationship between social class and leadership is greater for state officers than for local officers.

There was no relationship between employment and holding leadership positions. Thus hypothesis three was not supported. Employed persons were as likely to hold office as non-employed persons. (See Table 5). The same is true for state officers. The state officers had a slight tendency to be employed at full-time jobs as over half of them had full-time positions outside the home. (See Table 6).

Hypothesis four concerning the presence and age of children did not make a significant difference in one's leadership in the auxiliary. Previous research findings had offered conflicting ideas concerning this point. Our findings showed that about twenty per cent of the members had no children and these persons held about twenty per cent of the local president positions. (See Table 7). In regards to state leadership positions about thirty-three per cent of state officers were held by persons without children but the differences between local and state leaders were not great enough to reach a significance level. (See Table 8). The data do suggest however that having children may be somewhat prohibitive to travel and participation beyond the local level. Ages of children did not produce significant differences between leaders and non-leaders (See Table 9). This is in contrast to the findings of Collison and Cooney who suggest that having pre-school children is negatively correlated with leadership. For state offices, however, the trend is in that direction. One-sixth of the state officers had children all of whom were pre-school age. (See Table 10).

The hypothesis concerning the relationship between husband's leadership and wife's leadership was supported as a level greater than .001. (See Table 11). Seventy-four per cent of the local presidents had husbands who were local presidents or local officers.

If her husband is an officer there is a high probability that she will be an officer also. If the husband is not an officer then it is very likely that the wife holds no office. At the state level the relationship does not hold. Her husband's leadership makes little difference. Half of the state officers had husbands who held no local or state office. (See Table 12).

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

The overwhelming dominance of the relationship between husband's leadership and wife's leadership at the local level is one of the major findings of the study. At the local level the wife seems to be judged on the basis of her husband's participation and leadership in the male organization. The husband's participation and leadership bears more relationship to the wife's role than do her own personal characteristics such as education, social class, and employment. This seems to support the idea that in the community individuals are judged more on the basis of who they are and who they know than on the basis of personal traits and characteristics.

In order for the woman to gain a leadership position in her auxiliary her husband must also be active in voluntary activities. The various voluntary groups work together closely on community projects and support is frequently needed from the other member of the husband-wife team to legitimate leadership capabilities. When the husband is an officer, particularly president, his wife is actively involved in supportive efforts.

Although this relationship is statistically significant, the strength of the association may well be influenced by the fact that the organization under study is an auxillary to a men's association. Samples drawn from more autonomous kinds of women's groups might reveal a variation in this trend. The same relationship does not hold true for state leadership, however. Here the female must "make it on her own." At this level the woman's qualifications for leadership roles are judged primarily on her individual capabilities. Accordingly, a consistent trend among state officers was that they were significantly better educated than their local counterparts. They achieve this position, it appears, without dependence upon the husband's level of participation, for half had husbands who held no state or local office. This may well be an artifact of interorganizational relationships in that the male/parent and female/auxillary groups are not as closely related at the state level as they are on the local level.

These data also suggest a dualistic system of organizational recruitment and participation. On the local level it is primarily the status of the woman's family, particularly her husband, that influences her willingness to join, participate and acquire positions of leadership. On the regional and state levels, however, individual role characteristics such as educational attainment, occupational status, range of family income and the presence and age of children are more apt to affect the women's level of organizational involvement.

This paper has only begun to explore the factors relating to leadership in women's voluntary associations. The effect of children on leadership must be given more attention as several factors seem to intervene here. One is the presence of domestic help and the other is level and type of employment. Future research should investigate this relationship more fully.

Those who utilize volunteer staff or who work with voluntary associations would do well to take note of the patterns of interaction between the degree and kind of married female voluntary participation and the factors of education, occupation, presence and age of children and the level of the husband's voluntary involvement. Additionally, it should be noted that these factors exert different kinds of influence upon married women volunteers, depending upon whether or not the voluntary effort is being exercised on a local, regional or state level. These considerations could prove most useful in directing recruitment efforts and guiding the selection of leadership staff positions.

Future analysis should also focus on differences by length of membership, size of club, urban versus rural communities, participation and leadership in other voluntary association, and type of employment held by the woman.

The research is but part of a larger effort that will study women's organization in a variety of settings other than those which serve an auxillary function. The current sample, however, offers an excellant opportunity to study an organization undergoing structural and functional change. When added to the findings in other areas it is hoped these data will offer new insights into the phenomena of volunteerism.

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Table 1

Relationship of Education to Leadership

Her Education	Local President	Other Officer	Non-Officer
High School	46	227	277
Some College	32	151	180
College Graduate	15	111	149

$x^2 = 3.255$ not significant

Table 2

Relation of Education to Local
And State Leadership

Her Education	Local President	State Offices
High School	46	3
Some College	32	9
College Graduate	15	7

$x^2 = 7.47$ significant at $> .01$

Table 3

Relationship of Social Class to Local Leadership

Social Class	Local President	Other Local Officer	Non-Officer
1	6	56	73
2	18	95	102
3	41	160	247
4	13	88	97
5	0	4	7

X^2 = 10.53 not significant

Table 4

Relationship of Social Class to Local And State Leadership

Social Class	Local President	State Officer
1	6	4
2	18	5
3	41	9
4	13	0
5	0	0

x^2 = 5.16 not significant

Table 5

Relationship of Employment to Local Leadership

Employment	Local President	Other Local Officer	Non-Officer
Not Employed	42	202	267
Part-time Employed	6	40	42
Full-time Employed	42	224	289

$x^2 = .987$

Table 6

Relationship of Employment to Local And State Leadership

Employment	Local President	State Officer
Not Employed	42	9
Part-time Employed	6	0
Full-time Employed	42	10

$x^2 = 1.33$ not significant

Table 7

Relationship of Motherhood to Local Leadership

Number of Children	Local President	Other Officer	Non-Officer
0	17	87	139
1	24	153	185
2	40	169	208
3	11	52	72
4 or more	2	18	23

x^2 = 7.19 not significant

Table 8

Relationship of Motherhood to Local And State Leadership

Number of Children	Local President	State Officer
0	17	6
1	24	2
2	40	7
3	11	2
4 or more	2	1

$x^2 = 2.88$ not significant

Table 9

Relationship of Age Children to Local Leadership

Age of Children	Local President	Other Officer	Non-Officer
All 0-5	36	205	261
At least 1 (0-5)	27	107	142
All School Age	16	80	84

$x^2 = 3.34$ not significant

Table 10

Relationship of Age of Children to Local and State Leadership

Age of Children	Local President	State Officer
All 0-5	36	3
At least 1 (0-5)	27	5
All School Age	16	4

$x^2 = 1.60$ not significant

Table 11

Relationship of Husband's Leadership to
Wife's Local Leadership

Husband's Participation	Local President	Other Officer	Non-Officer
Local President	12	22	8
Local Officer	35	121	84
Non-Officer	16	205	317

$x^2 = 93.27$ Significant at $>$ .001

Table 12

Relationship of Husband's Leadership to Local and State Leadership

Husband's Office	Local President	State Officer
Holds Local or State Office	47	7
Holds No Local or State Office	16	7

$x^2 = 3.83$ not significant

OLDER VOLUNTEERS: WELL OFF BECAUSE THEY VOLUNTEER OR VOLUNTEERING BECAUSE THEY ARE WELL OFF?

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The relationship between voluntary association and life satisfaction, happiness, or psychological well-being among the elderly has been examined several times. Cutler (1973) found that the significant relationship between voluntary association and life satisfaction reflected a relationship between health and socio-economic status and voluntary association. When the effects of health and SES were controlled, the relationship of satisfaction and voluntary association became non-significant. Cutler concluded "that voluntary associations self-select as members and as participants persons who are initially more satisfied with their life situation by virtue of their health and status characteristics." (Cutler, 1973, p. 99). These findings were replicated by Bull and Aucoin three years later in a different geographic area. (Bull and Aucoin, 1975)

Organizational activity was found to be significantly related to satisfaction in a study by Palmore and Luikart (1972). In a multiple regression analysis organizational activity was less important in explaining satisfaction than was a self-health rating, but more important than social-psychological or socio-economic variables. Organizational activity was defined as the number of religious services and meetings attended each month.

Palmore and Luikart attempted to analyze determinants of satisfaction among adults aged forty-six to seventy-one. The subgroup aged sixty to seventy-one differed slightly from the total sample. For these older subjects internal control as well as self-health rating was more important in explaining satisfaction scores than was organizational activity.

While organizational activity was a very important variable, other activity measures such as social activity hours, productive hours, social contacts, and employment were less important. Both social activity hours and productive hours included time spent on volunteer work among other activities. Productive hours was a significant determinant of satisfaction for the total group, but not for the subgroup aged sixty to seventy-one. Similarly, social activity hours was a significant variable among men of all ages but not among the older group of both sexes.

Graney (1975) also found a significant relationship between voluntary association and happiness. His design involved both interviews and re-interviews four years later of older women. He found a relationship between voluntary activity and happiness and found that changes in activity over time were related to changes in happiness. In this analysis, however, there were no controls for the effects of health and socio-economic status.

Another study (Edwards and Klemmack, 1973) found that the correlation between voluntary association and satisfaction decreased when the effects of education, occupation and income were removed, but that the partial r was still significant ($P \leq .05$). Nevertheless, when voluntary association was one of twenty-two variables in a regression equation its effect was non-significant. The multiple regression indicated that the most important predictors of life satisfaction were income, occupation, informal non-familial participation, and health.

In a later study Cutler (1976) examined the effects of membership in different types of voluntary associations. His earlier study had measured the number of memberships in voluntary associations, the number of associations in which the respondent was "very involved" and frequency of meeting attendance, but had not differentiated between types of organizations. Cutler found that of sixteen types of voluntary associations only membership in church-related groups added significantly to explaining satisfaction and happiness scores when the effects of health and SES were controlled.

That the affect of voluntary association of life satisfaction varies by type of membership raises a furthur question: Does the purpose of voluntary activity play a role in the voluntary association-satisfaction relationship? Membership or activity in some organizations is chiefly social, in other organizations participation is other-oriented and is seen by the participant to be a helping activity. This is the difference between voluntary association and "volunteer work." It is possible that the rewards of volunteer work, satisfaction and a feeling of self-worth, may contribute more to an older person's happiness than does mere membership or activity in a variety of organizations. Yet in all the studies cited above volunteer work is not distinguished from voluntary association.

A comprehensive study of Maine's older citizens conducted in the fall of 1975 revealed that 21% engaged in "volunteer work." Respondents were 854 persons aged sixty or older who were interviewed in their homes. The study Over 60 in Maine: A Progress Report was conducted for the Maine Committee on Aging by Barbara D. Clark and the Social Science Research Institute of the University of Maine. Volunteerism was not a major focus of the study, but the information collected relating to older volunteers is highly interesting.

Respondents were asked how they spent their free time. Each was asked specifically about a number of activities; reading, watching TV, listening to the radio, doing handiwork, playing cards or games, visiting or talking to friends, and doing volunteer.[1] All respondents were then asked which of these activities took up most of their time, how much time every day was spent at the activity taking most of their time, what they would like to do but could not do for some reason, and why they could not do that.

Of the 182 who did volunteer work, twenty-three reported it as their most time-consuming activity. They generally spent one to three hours daily volunteering. We do not know, however, what kinds of volunteer work were done or how extensively the other 159 volunteered.

Eighteen respondents (2%) would have liked to do volunteer work but could not. The greatest barrier to volunteering was physical limitation;

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[1] The term volunteer work was not defined for the respondent and no information on types of volunteer work was collected.

other obstacles were the lack of transportation, money, or time, and home or family obligations.

Twenty-three percent of the sample were aware of the federal government's volunteer program for older persons, RSVP. Among those involved in volunteer work, 33% has heard of RSVP, while only 20% of those not volunteering had heard of the program. Only nine of the respondents had participated in RSVP.

Comparisons of those volunteering and not volunteering show marked differences. Volunteers were significantly more likely to be satisfied with their lives, to say they communicated with people as often as they wished, and to score favorably on the Bradburn Affect Balance Scale, or ABS. (Bradburn, 1969) The ABS consists of a series of items about how the respondent has felt during the past few weeks, measuring both positive and negative affect and combining scores to one overall measure of psychological well-being. The scale has been validated for use with the elderly (Moriwaki, 1974). The items and the percentages of volunteers and non-volunteers responding yes to each is summarized in Table I.

(Table I about here)

Volunteers also differ sharply from non-volunteers on other measures. Volunteers reported better health and fewer problems with loneliness, spare time activities or transportation. In addition, the volunteers appear to be a more fortunate group. Only 17% of volunteers had incomes less than $3,000 yearly as compared with 30% of non-volunteers. Volunteers were also more highly educated, and more often got around by driving themselves. Marital status, sex, and whether or not the respondent was forced to retire because of age appear not to be related to volunteerism.

(Table II about here)

The question these data present is whether the differences on emotional, psychological measures (the Bradburn scale) are explained chiefly by the higher incomes, better health, better education, and so on of volunteers, or whether volunteerism plays a role in the older persons' mental well-being. Three-way cross-tabulations were constructed between the Affect Balance Scale and whether or not the person does volunteer work controlling for personal characteristics. These tables show that the significant relationship between ABS and volunteer work, as indicated by χ^2, obtains in sub-groups based on health, marital status, age, sex, education, and income, except among the 11% with incomes above $10,000.

Multiple regression was next used to find which variables could best explain the variation in the Affect Balance Scale. Nine independent variables selected because of their association with the ABS or with volunteer work or their importance as demographic characteristics were entered in the equation. Stepwise regressions were performed by the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (Nie, Hall, Jenkins, Steinbrenner, and Bent, 1975).

As one might expect from earlier studies of life satisfaction (Cutler, 1973; Cutler, 1976; Palmore and Luikart, 1972; Bull and Aucoin, 1975; Edwards and Klemmack, 1973) the variable explaining the greatest amount of variation was health as rated by the respondent. The health rating explained about seven percent of the total variation. Surprisingly, however, the only other significant variable in the equation was whether the respondent does volunteer work. Volunteer work explained less than three percent of the variation but was more important than the socio-economic variables (income and education) and marital status, age, sex, ability to drive, and having been employed during 1974 (the last full calendar year).

A further regression was run following the model of Cutler (1976). The variables measuring health and socio-economic status were brought into the equation first as a block. Together these three variables explained about eight percent of the variation in the Affect Balance Scale. The variable for volunteer work was then brought into the equation. A significant ($P < .01$) F value resulted and the R^2, explained variation, was increased by about two percent. These statistics are consistent with the stepwise regression showing that volunteer work is significantly related to scores on the Affect Balance Scale even when the effect of health ratings is controlled, and that furthermore volunteer work is a significant variable even when the effects of socio-economic status are also controlled.

Differences in findings between this study and others cited above have several possible foundations. The chief explanation offered here is the difference between voluntary association, measured in other studies, and volunteer work. Another explanation worth exploring is the difference in dependent variables, the measurements of life satisfaction, happiness or psychological well-being. Cutler (1973) and Bull and Aucoin (1975) measured satisfaction by the Neugarten, Havighurst and Tobin index (Neugarten, Havighurst, and Tobin, 1961). Edwards and Klemmack (1973) used items from the Adams Life Satisfaction Index (Adams, 1969). Palmore and Luikart (1972) used the Cantril Ladder (Cantril, 1965). The Bradburn Affect Balance Scale, used here, was also used by Graney (1975). Cutler's later study (Cutler, 1976) employed one question of happiness and four concerning life satisfaction.

The multiple regression technique was again employed to see whether the significant relationship of volunteer work and satisfaction when controlling for health, income and education was sensitive to the definition of the dependent variable. In one regression problem responses to the question, "Taking all things together, how would you say things are these days? Would you say you're very happy, pretty happy, or not too happy?" were substituted for the Affect Balance Scale as the Dependent variable. The zero-order correlation between this happiness score and the Bradburn Scale is .495. Health, education and income were entered in the regression as a block and then the volunteer work variable was entered in a second step. As with the Bradburn Scale volunteer work showed a significant relationship to happiness even when health, education, and income were controlled.

As a second check the regression was also done substituting a life satisfaction response for the Bradburn Affect Balance Scale. The question was, "In general, how satisfying do you find the way you're spending your life these days? Would you call it completely satisfying, pretty satisfying, or not very satisfying?" The zero-order correlation between satisfaction and the ABS was .466.[2] Use of this variable made little difference. Once more volunteer work significantly contributed to the explained variation when entered after health, education and income.

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[2] The satisfaction question was separated from the happiness and Affect Balance questions by a number of items on transportation, activities, and housing. This should have reduced the tendency of respondents to develop a response pattern and give falsely similar responses to the items.

Summary

The data reported here, from a sample of 854 Maine citizens aged sixty or older, suggest that whether or not an older person does volunteer work is an important variable in explaining scores on an index of psychological well-being. The significance of this relationship does not disappear when the effects of health, income and education are controlled, suggesting that volunteer work itself is directly related to well-being.

These findings differ from other studies cited which found that the relationship between life satisfaction and voluntary association was an artifact of relations between voluntary association and variables such as health and socio-economic status. Further exploration of the differences between voluntary association, usually measured by number of memberships and meetings attended, and volunteer work is needed to clarify the relationships.

The implications of these data should be of interest to those involved in volunteer programs for the elderly. Federal programs, such as RSVP and Foster Grandparents, as well as private volunteer programs have been developed to provide benefits to providers as well as recipients of volunteer services. It is important that these benefits reach not only those who are already well off in terms of health, income and education. These data imply that volunteer work is related to psychological well-being separately from relationships of both these variables with health and socio-economic status. Caution must be used, however, in inferring a direction of causality.

TABLE I

PERCENT OF ELDERLY VOLUNTEERS AND NON-VOLUNTEERS RESPONDING YES TO ITEMS OF BRADBURN AFFECT BALANCE SCALE

(N=854,Maine, 1975)

During the past few weeks did you ever feel . . .

		Volunteers	Non-Volunteers
a.	Pleased about having accomplished something?**	90%	72%
b.	Bored?*	19	28
c.	On top of the world?**	60	37
d.	Upset because someone criticized you?	13	13
e.	Particularly excited or interested in something?**	65	42
f.	Depressed or very unhappy?**	10	25
g.	Pleased that things were going your way?*	88	78
h.	So restless*you couldn't sit long in a chair?	17	25
i.	Proud because someone complimented you on something you had done?**	72	55
j.	Lonely or remote from other people?	14	19

*Chi square significant,p<.05

**Chi square significant,p<.001

TABLE II

PERCENT OF ELDERLY WHO VOLUNTEER BY PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS

(N=854, Maine, 1975)

	Percent Who Volunteer
Age*	
60-64	26
65-74	24
75+	17
Sex	
Male	21
Female	23
Marital Status	
Married	25
Widowed	18
Divorced/Separated	14
Never Married	27
Income**	
Less than $ 3,000	14
$ 3,000 - $ 5,000	21
$ 5,000 - $10,000	27
$10,000 or more	37
Education**	
8th grade or less	14
Grades 9-11	16
Grade 12	24
Post-Secondary	35

	Percent Who Volunteer
Self Health Rating**	
Excellent	33
Good	27
Fair	12
Poor	9
Drives Car**	
Yes	28
No	13
Has Trouble Getting Around	
Yes	16
No	23
Worked for Pay during 1974**	
Yes	31
No	19
Membership in Organization for Older Americans	
Yes	26
No	20
Aware of RSVP Program**	
Yes	33
No	20

* Chi square significant P<.05

** Chi square significant P<.01

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VOLUNTEERISM: SOCIOLOGICAL REFLECTIONS ON LEISURE AND SOCIAL CONTROL

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Volunteerism is fast becoming a national concern. The interests in who volunteers and what types of volunteer agencies are possible is of paramount importance. We need more studies not only to indicate the economic impact of volunteerism but also an accounting of what social conditions will allow volunteer organizations to flourish. This paper is directed at both the macro-structures (social conditions) and the micro-structure of volunteerism (who volunteers). This paper is not, however, a substantive study of a country or a particular group of people. Rather, it is an attempt to formalize some axioms and propositions about human behavior in general, which may apply to the study of volunteerism.

The paper shall proceed as follows. First, some axioms will be sketched. From the axiomatic statements we will derive some propositions about the social conditions for volunteerism on the macro and micro level. Secondly, we will try to indicate substantively, in part, how this schema applies to leisure and the social control community of volunteers.

AXIOMS

I. Each individual constructs his own subjective reality.

II. Individual cognition is constructed from social communications.

III. Individuals have power over each other's subjective reality (from I and II).

IV. Each individual attempts to maximize his subjective status to the degree allowed by the resources available to himself and others he contacts.

V. Each individual values highest what he is best at, and attempts to act out and communicate about it as much as possible.

VI. Each individual seeks social contacts which give him the greatest subjective status, and avoids those in which he has lowest status (from III, IV, V).

VII. Where individuals' resources differ, social contacts involve inequalities in power to define subjective reality.

VIII. Human beings have the capacity for symbolism (invoking the unseen past, future, or abstract notions representing combinations of many different experiences) by using images and/or sounds to represent them. (N.B. The capacity for symbolism is not equivalent to the ability to make certain sounds.)

IX. Human beings are animals who must meet the minimal demands of any biological organism for continued existence.[1]

MACRO-STRUCTURAL CONDITIONS FOR VOLUNTEERISM

Given the above axioms, the development of propositions is in order.

1.0 The more that individuals are involved in producing food for subsistence, the less likely they are to direct their attention to other activities (i.e., cultural or recreational pursuits).

2.0 In a subsistence economy, greater prestige will go to those individuals who can provide survival.

3.0 The greater the survival need for a population, the more likely that the greater proportion of the population will be involved in subsistence.

4.0 The greater the proportion of a given population involved in subsistence, the less likelihood for differentiation in the social system to develop.

5.0 The lower the level of differentiation in a society, the less likelihood for volunteerism to emerge (from 1-4).

The above propositions state the most general conditions for volunteerism to emerge as a social activity (i.e., social organization). It also is important to indicate in what type of stratification system volunteerism may emerge.

6.0 In a society in which the division of labor is developed (i.e., town and country) the greater the likelihood that an individual will participate in multiple groups.

6.1 The greater the participation in different groups, the more likely that an individual will acquire his subjective status from multiple group affiliation.

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[1] We are heavily indebtedly to Randall Collin's work, Conflict Sociology (1975) for what follows in this section of the paper. Although Collins is attempting to provide a comprehensive comparative framework for human behavior, we are more narrowly interested in his axioms and propositions for the development of propositions about volunteerism.

6.2 In a society in which subsistence is not the major concern, the greater the likelihood of participation in volunteer activities (from 5, 6.0 and 6.1).

We may continue to ask which groups (people) will be most likely to participate in volunteer activities in a differentiated society.

7.0 In a society where the division of labor is developed and some groups have defined subsistence work negatively, the greater the likelihood of participation in non-subsistence activities (from VII and 6.2).

7.1 In a society where some groups have defined subsistence work negatively and those groups have power over others, the greater the likelihood that those groups without power will imitate those holding power (from VI and 6.2).

7.15 In a differentiated society, those groups which are not concerned solely with subsistence will be more likely to participate in volunteer (i.e., non-subsistence) activities (from 6.1).

We now turn to an examination of the bearing of surveillance and communications on volunteer activities. Our interest here is on the effects of surveillance and communication for participating in volunteer activities.

8.0 The greater the development of the technology of transportation and communication, the greater the potential diversity of communications (from VII and 6.0).

8.1 The more that political authority (as a distinctive activity) is separated from the household, the greater the potential diversity of communication and the lower the potential level of surveillance.

8.2 The greater the level of the diversity of communications, the greater the potential for participation in varied activities (i.e., volunteer activities) (from 8.0 and 8.1).

8.3 The greater the level of surveillance the more likely that groups will adhere to activities that the group controlling communications defines (from VII and 8.0-8.2).

8.4 When a group controls the resources of communication and the surveillance activities and it defines volunteerism positively, the greater the potential for groups without resources to define volunteer activities in a positive manner (from 8.0-8.3).

9.0 In a society where the division of labor, transportation, and communication are highly developed and egalitarian principles are espoused, the greater the potential for volunteer activities to emerge (from 8.0 and 8.2).

9.1 In a society where volunteer activities are not seen as a threat to the groups in control, the greater the likelihood for volunteer activities (from VII).

9.2 In a society where centralization of control and surveillance is minimal, the greater the likelihood for volunteer activities to emerge (from 8.0, 8.2 and 9.0).

MICRO-STRUCTURAL CONDITIONS FOR VOLUNTEERISM

The concern in this instance is for the individual who would be most likely to engage in volunteer activities. Rather than examining groups, the individual is the focal point of concern. In many instances, we can build on the propositions already articulated.

10.0 The less that an individual is involved in subsistence activities, the greater the likelihood that he/she will engage in alternative activities (i.e., volunteer) (from 1-5).

10.1 Given unequal resources, individuals will engage in volunteer activities that present themselves as subjective status gains (VI and VII).

10.2 Individuals will have a greater propensity to participate in volunteer activities when their subsistence is not an issue and when volunteer activities are something that the individual is good at doing (1-4 and VI).

10.3 Individuals who do not have high community status (i.e., because of occupational rank, age, etc.) will be more likely to participate in volunteer activities when increased status can be gained (from VI).

10.4 Given resource inequality, individuals will join volunteer activities that provide high status but low resource costs (i.e., they will not participate if it negatively affects their larger community status) (from 10.3, VI and VII).

The above propositions indicate the conditions in which the individual will participate in volunteer activities for increasing subjective status. It also is of interest to examine who the volunteer worker will most likely be. Although we do not want to become overly specific; age, sex, and stratification can be tied together in examining the volunteer phenomena. For example:

11.0 In a society where old age is valued negatively, other things being equal, these aged would be more likely to engage in volunteer activities to increase their subjective status (from VI and VII).

11.1 In a society where a person's role is circumscribed around some particularized activity (e.g., child-bearing), when that activity (of a life cycle here) is completed the greater the likelihood that people will engage in volunteer activities (from VI and VII).

11.2 The more similar their occupational positions, the more similar their incomes, and hence, the more likely persons are to live in the same neighborhoods and have similar recreations, the more likely they are to share common values (IV and VI).

11.3 In a situation where other individuals are those a given individual looks to for social reference and those individuals participate in volunteer activities, the greater the likelihood that an individual will participate in volunteer activities (from 11.2).

In the last two sets of propositions the concern was with motivation to volunteer. Attention can now be turned to those already involved in volunteer activities.

12.0 The more subjective status an individual gains from participating in volunteer activities the more likely the individual will continue that activity (from VI).

12.1 The more one gives orders, the more he is proud, self-assured, formal and identifies with the organizational ideals in whose name he justifies the orders (from IV and VI).

12.15 The more one takes orders, the more he is subservient, fatalistic and alienated from organizational ideals (from IV and VI).

12.2 The more authority an individual gains from upholding volunteer activities, the more the person enforces volunteerism as a way of life (from VI and 12.0).

12.25 The more one takes orders in a volunteer situation, the less likely he will be to identify with that organization or its ideals (from VI and 12.1 and 12.2).

At this point, we turn our attention to the conceptual linkage between volunteerism and leisure time activity. The discussion of leisure time activity and volunteerism will take place in the context of the propositions on volunteerism already articulated.

CONCEPTUAL LINKAGES: VOLUNTEERISM AND LEISURE

Conceptual models of leisure range from the humanistic to sociological including therapeutic, institutional, epistemological, and quantitative discussions (Kaplan, 1975). The most conventional characterization of leisure is that of a residual--that left over after accounting for pure work-job activities (Neulinger, 1974). Certainly, the idea of volunteerism falls within that residual. We can therefore argue that volunteerism is some sub-set of what is conventionally called leisure activity. The question is, "Can parts or segments of leisure be isolated as or related to volunteerism?"

Leisure definitions have ambiguities even within the residual. Everywhere the residual is further delineated by accounting for general biological and maintenance functions, some large degree of error is still involved. For instance, eating is a biological necessity which could be deemed non-leisure activity; on the other hand, many people and groups consider eating to be a leisure activity. The same may be said for housework, garden activity, childcare, and so on. Isolation of what constitutes volunteerism thus would be of assistance to leisure studies by reducing the residual. The benefits to studies of volunteerism lie in the area of substantive research and empirical generalizations. That is, the body of knowledge in leisure studies is voluminous. If some segment of that base may be applied to volunteerism per se, quantum leaps with minimal effort (i.e., reinterpretation) are possible. We are arguing that a number of leisure activity studies can be directly interpreted as studies in volunteerism. And, numerous others which may not be reinterpreted directly have important implications for a comprehensive view of volunteerism. At a minimum, such leisure studies can serve as interim support for some of the propositions already specified.

Numerous attempts have been made to develop paradigms of leisure activities as counterparts to those economic in nature (Neulinger, 1974; Kaplan, 1975; Cheek and Burch, 1976). The result of such efforts is a multitude of terminologies which refer to varying levels of abstraction and analytic units. The only common element of differentiation attempts is that of economic versus non-economic, referred to as non-leisure versus leisure (Neulinger, 1974) and work versus non-work (Kaplan, 1975; Cheek and Burch, 1976). Conceptual commonality ends at this point. Neulinger (1974) argues for further differentiation by motivation and goals. Kaplan (1975) asserts perceptions of leisure and pleasant anticipation encompassing of a wide range of commitment and intensity to be critical elements. Leisure as a component of life-style is the primary element for Cheek and Burch (1976). A further problem lies in that various units of analysis are focused upon—individual (Neulinger, 1974), social organization (Cheek and Burch, 1976), and social system (Kaplan, 1976).

The initial point of departure for the present paper is similar to those discussed above--economic versus non-economic. The difference is that we want only to concentrate on human behavior in the most elementary sense. That is, the idea of roles, motivations, etc. are assumed to be unnecessary complications for conceptually differentiating leisure and volunteerism. The initial differentiation is therefore economic versus non-economic behavior in that neither is life sustaining for the individual (see Figure 1).

[Figure 1 About Here]

The second factor is that of consumption. The assumption employed is that all behavior produces something which is consumed or becomes a part of some unit. Such consumption is either internal or external. The assertion is that whatever the unit (whether individual, family, organization, etc.) behavior is consumed either within or by others external to the unit. For example, mowing ones own lawn is internal consumption but mowing the lawn of the community center is external consumption. The question is thus, who consumes rather than why perform? We argue that internal consumption of non-economic behavior denotes leisure; external consumption of non-economic behavior characterizes volunteerism.

To differentiate within each, we employ the idea of reciprocity. Behavior with direct behavior counterparts on the part of other units is termed immediate reciprocity. Behavior which has no particular counterpart in the immediate sense is labelled delayed reciprocity, often termed altruism. The argument is that true altruism is virtually non-existent—some return for doing "good" is expected even if not directly or immediately. The character of immediate versus delayed reciprocity can be illustrated—an individual who plays a game of golf alone does incur immediate gratification for himself but not in terms of reciprocal action on the part of others. That same individual can, however, gain additional benefits from that golf game by discussion with others at some later time about the 40-foot putt, the great sand shot, the long drive, etc.—delayed reciprocity in recounting experiences and receiving accounts of like (or unlike) experiences from others.

Differentiation of non-economic behavior by internal versus external consumption allows delineation of volunteerism from leisure. Differentiation within volunteerism and leisure by delayed versus immediate reciprocity promotes characterization of types of leisure or volunteerism. Some interesting possibilities or comparison purposes thus arise—the golfer who plays alone may in many respects be comparable to a Red Cross volunteer. Or, a fishing club may be comparable in some respects to a community action group. The potential contribution of the paradigm is most clear, however, in another respect—a better grasp of what leisure studies are most applicable to volunteerism is attained.

SELECTED STUDIES: IMPLICATIONS AND INTERPRETATION WITH REFERENCE TO VOLUNTEERISM

Studies of leisure time in subsistence and undeveloped societies indicate a paradox to common sense characterizations of time utilization. A typical view is that maintenance of life efforts in such societies allows for little leisure. From numerous ethnographic studies it is noted, however, that virtually irrespective of climatic variations maintenance of life functions require only 2-1/2 to 3 work days per week (Cheek and Burch, 1976). In apparent contradiction, a work week in the U.S. from 1850 to 1972 has declined from approximately 70 to 38 hours (de Grazia, 1964). If we consider, however, such factors as "moon-lighting," part-time work, time in getting to and from work, requisites in maintenance of home, and increased work participation of women, the gains in leisure time are essentially non-existent (de Grazia, 1964). How is it then that we can posit a relationship between movement away from subsistence and increased leisure participation (and by implication volunteerism)? And, how can the growing concern with volunteerism as well as growth in the number of volunteer organizations be a function of societal development? More simply, if we are feasibly losing leisure time with increasing economic development, why should anyone freely engage in service functions for others which further reduces the residual left from work activity?

Two possible avenues of some potential are immediately apparent for accounting for the above paradox. Each is concerned with the effects of socio-economic development. First is noted effects on primary relations. It is typically asserted that economic development (including differentiation and division of labor) has a detrimental effect on the intensity and/or continuity of primary relations. It can thus be argued that increased concern with leisure pursuits (and volunteering) is one means by which primary relations are established and intensified in a complex society. Patterns of leisure participation with respect to sex, age, and life cycle (Cheek and Burch, 1976) provide some foundation for this perspective. We also suggest that volunteerism and growths in the number of volunteer organizations are a related phenomena.

A second phenomena which proves to be assistance in accounting for the paradox is concerned with status and occupations in complex societies. Economic development promotes specialization of work and status attainment through pure work activities. Given the difficulties in allocating individuals to work settings which are most congruent with their abilities, some degree of dissatisfaction is likely (and apparent). Leisure activities (and volunteerism) provide mechanisms by which several goals may be realized. First, an individual can participate without economic or life-style costs. Thus, leisure activity may be an avenue by which an individual can "try out" a potentially viable new work-like activity without risking economic well-being (Cheek and Burch, 1976). Another issue deals with status attainment. There are necessary limitations on objective status attainment in highly developed societies, but leisure activity provides a means to be "good" at something. Recognition of worth in any realm thus becomes a motivation for increased participation outside the work arena. Subjective status can then be attained through leisure or voluntary pursuits. If we add the likelihood of leisure being one means to dissipate dissatisfactions incurred in the pure work setting, increased leisure participation in conjunction with economic development becomes even more understandable.

The above discussion revolves around the "compensatory" argument (Neulinger, 1974) so often invoked as a means of accounting for relationships between work and leisure. Another argument of some note in this regard is typically termed "spillover" (Neulinger, 1974). This perspective takes note of the fact that some portion of leisure activities are direct functions of work activities. For instance, a carpenter may make furniture as an interest pursuit without connotations of status-esteem maintenance attainment or compensations for other dissatisfactions. The issue is again pertinent in terms of economic development. Specialization of function in the actual work setting may not be conducive to taking advantage of all the individual's abilities within a given area. This is not to suggest that dissatisfaction is rampant or that status attainment is inadequate; fulfillment through leisure activity may therefore be through expanding work activities per se, but in another environment.

The potential contribution of leisure studies to those of volunteerism should be apparent. Leisure studies suggest the seeking of: (1) primary relations; (2) status attainment; (3) environments to "try-out" a new vocation; and (4) environments to accomodate work-circumscribed abilities. If the paradigm relating leisure to volunteerism is roughly acceptable, the hypotheses should be applicable to studies in volunteerism. The potential is far greater than the selective discussion above in that only a miniscule portion of leisure studies have been tapped. However, to promote awareness of the potential is sufficient for our purposes.

SOCIAL CONTROL AND VOLUNTEERISM: A CASE STUDY OF JUVENILE PROBATION

The preceding list of propositional statements regarding volunteerism would lead one to predict that the majority of volunteers would be extending primary relations, seeking status attainment, or trying out new vocations. A look at the use of volunteers in juvenile probation (in the U.S.) may add support for these propositions.

The use of volunteerism with respect to juveniles in the U.S. developed in full scale during the middle part of the nineteenth century. From the earliest stages, volunteerism with juveniles was dominated by middle-class housewives. The conservative and moralistic motivations of these women are analyzed in several volumes, notably Platt's *The Child Savers*, (1969). It is interesting to note that in line with a further prediction from the propositions stated above, the concept of volunteerism with juveniles began to emerge at about the same time as technology, mass communication, and division of labor all began to develop rapidly in the U.S.

With the development of the juvenile court around the turn of the century, occupational specialization, together with increased recognition of the utility of the behavioral sciences, led to the decline of volunteer workers with juvenile delinquents. During the nineteen fifties, however, we began to see renewed interest in the volunteer as an agent of change and this interest has continued to the present with increasing scope (National Council of Jewish Women, 1975; Latina and Schembera, 1976). While precise details concerning the social and political characteristics of contemporary juvenile volunteer workers are not often given, indications are that these characteristics are generally similar to those of the nineteenth century volunteer; that is, middle-class, conservative housewife. With increased emphasis in the U.S. today towards removing the juvenile status offender from the purview of the juvenile court, we may expect to see the use of volunteers continue to grow. The characteristics of these future volunteers, however, may not be the same as those of the past. This may be the case inasmuch as the volunteer movement may be said to have been given an "artificial boost," as it were, from legislative and court decisions mandating the unofficial handling of many juveniles. Thus, it is reasonable to suspect that a larger pool of volunteer workers will have to be developed in order to supply the expected extra demand for volunteers in the near future.

Not all previous volunteer programs with juveniles have been populated with middle-class personnel. Perhaps the best known delinquency prevention projects in the U.S. are the Chicago Area Projects. One of the cardinal features of these projects has been the domination of operation by local, neighborhood indigenious laymen—parents, relatives and adult role models of juveniles living in high delinquency areas (Finestone, 1976). Since most of these areas are characterized by poverty and lower-working class occupations, local adult leaders drawn from the neighborhoods to serve essentially as volunteer workers would also be classified as working or lower class. Thus, many of these indigenious personnel may be seeking subjective status gains or extending the sphere of their primary relations, the need to feel important, so to speak.

Whether volunteers have come, or will come, from middle and upper class segments of society, the conservative orientation of these workers remains as a primary characteristic of them and the nature of the work they perform. Volunteer work in the area of juvenile "corrections" has had a strong individualistic orientation, and there is little reason to suspect this orientation will change in the future. The goal of such work has been to turn the individual around to an "acceptable" lifestyle or outlook on life. Even in such programs as the Chicago Area Projects, where the focus of attention has been manifestly on local neighborhood structure, concern for the individual plight of juveniles has often been raised. In other words, volunteer programs have never been aimed at redistributing power structures or reshaping dominant societal institutions as part of the rehabilitation process. The selection of volunteer workers (largely conducted by, or under the guidance of, juvenile court judges) largely reflects this conservative orientation. The conservative posture of volunteer workers and volunteer work in the field of juvenile corrections is perhaps the key element of volunteerism in general.

CONCLUSIONS

In summary, this paper has attempted primarily to distinguish the economic from the non-economic aspects of volunteer behavior. This is not to say that volunteerism is strictly non-economic in orientation. Indeed, in many instances volunteerism may be thought of as a way to improve economic productivity. For example, a bank may want to improve its economic relations with the community and as such may volunteer its administrative executives for various community volunteer activities. Insofar as volunteerism can be viewed as a non-subsistence activity it can be fruitfully compared with leisure time behavior. A review of the literature on leisure behavior suggests that people participate for one or more of the following reasons: (1) expansion of primary relations; (2) status attainment; (3) environments to "try out" a new vocation; (4) environments to accomodate work circumscribed activities. Studies of leisure may be useful in helping us to understand volunteer behavior. Similarly, a study of social control volunteers in the Chicago Area Projects may lead us away from simplistic analyses which simply state that people with extra time on their hands will volunteer. Indeed, it may be the case that volunteerism in the social control community is intimately related to the same structure of motives for leisure time activity.

In any case, we believe that greater conceptual clarity and cross-fertilization from other disciplines is necessary for understanding the volunteer phenomena. Volunteerism does seem to be a variant of non-subsistence behavior and as such needs clarification in relationship to other non-subsistence activities. In addition, we need further enlightenment on the range and types of volunteer organizations as well as an indication of their relationship to the structure of individual motives. Without the above, it will be difficult to maintain and encourage the development of volunteerism as a way of life.

Figure 1

DELINEATION OF LEISURE AND VOLUNTEERISM BEHAVIOR

Non-Economic				Economic
Consumption				
Internal		External		
Reciprocity		Reciprocity		
Delayed	Immediate	Delayed	Immediate	Work Job
Leisure		Volunteerism		

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VOLUNTEERISM IN TWO MARYLAND COUNTIES

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This paper attempts to provide some insight into volunteerism: who volunteers, where their volunteer energies go, and how they feel about their volunteer activities. In addition, we have attempted to provide a glimpse into the organized club as a source of volunteerism. This attempt has probably raised considerably more questions than we have been able to answer. Those of us who draw heavily on the volunteer community can benefit by having a better understanding of where to look and how volunteers will feel about various types of volunteer activities. The data provided in this paper were drawn from two recent studies;* (1974 data) carried out in neighboring counties in Maryland. Neither was designed specifically to deal with questions related to volunteerism. However, a further analysis of data already collected was attempted. One study dealt with a stratified random sample of 196 homemakers who were members of 50 Extension Homemaker Clubs in metropolitan Montgomery County, Maryland, who had indicated that they were involved in volunteer activities. The sample was stratified to insure that 15 per cent and no less than three representatives for each club were included. The sample was selected from 488 volunteering members of a larger survey (1,102).

The second population from which data for this paper has been drawn were identified in a study of randomly selected households from Frederick County, Maryland. The survey allowed us to look at adults (18 years old and up) and teenagers in the households who indicated they were contributing volunteer time. In both of these studies, frequency counts and chi square analyses were used to interpret the data: significance was set at .10.

Frederick County, a nonmetropolitan county, has an identifiable urban center with a population of approximately 25,000 and a constellation of smaller towns which provide local centers.

In order to reflect differences in population density within the county, the sample was allocated proportionately among three different density strata -- open countryside, incorporated villages and central city. The random sample, stratified in this way, resulted in 146 interviews in the open countryside, 65 in the city and 36 in the incorporated towns.

The total of 247 households contained 542 adults and 315 children. The volunteers were members of 112 or 45 per cent of those households in the total study. There were 139 individual volunteers in the sample; they volunteered time for direct service to clientele or organizations or time for fundraising for organizations. Thirteen of the volunteers were dependent children under 18.

The 126 adult volunteers represented 23 per cent of the total number of adults. The median age of adult volunteers was 41. These volunteers provided help to 50 different agencies or organizations. They included:

Red Cross
Church
4-H
Boy Scouts
Girl Scouts
Little League
Drum and Majorette Corps
Elementary Schools
PTA
Hood College
YMCA
Planning and Zoning (town)
Parks and Recreation (city)
Commission on Aging
Extension Homemakers
Grange
Farm Bureau Women
Ruritan
Civinettes
Lions
Delta Cappa Gamma
American Assn. of University Women
War Veterans
Catoctones
Civic Association
Salvation Army
Volunteer Fire Department
Private Recycling Group
Alcoholics Anonymous
Planned Parenthood
Mental Health Assn.
Assn. for Retarded Citizens
Jeanne Bussard Training Workshop
Francis Scott Key Center
Goodwill Industries
Handicapped and Blind
Frederick Memorial Hospital
Leukemia Foundation
Cancer
Frederick Art and Civic Club
Heart Association
March of Dimes
Muscular Dystrophy
Cystic Fibrosis
United Fund/Community Chest
Cropwalk for the Hungry
Multiple Sclerosis
TB-Lung Association
Coast Guard Flotilla

Fifty-eight per cent of the volunteers were housewives, 23 per cent were male heads of households, ten per cent were dependents, four per cent were female head of households and two per cent were single males. Only seven volunteer's households were one adult households.

When looking at the number of people in households who volunteered, we found that one household had six volunteers, five (five per cent) households had three volunteers, 12 (11 per cent) households had two volunteers and 94 (84 per cent) households had only one volunteer. The volunteer households represent a higher percentage of families with children under 18 and a lower percentage of childless households than was found in the larger sample.

In most cases, response to amount of time volunteered was not specific and had to be estimated from the activity named and the reported frequency.

In developing this data a number of assumptions were made. These included the following: that door to door canvassing for funds involved one hour a day for a week, helping the teacher at school one day a week equalled six hours, church dinners involve three hours of time, and giving blood, one hour. Hours volunteered were calculated only on an hours-per-year basis since many activities reported, especially fundraising, happened only once a year. In some cases, it was impossible to estimate number of hours volunteered from the information given. For example, plumbing skills given to the church "often" or teaching a volunteer nurses' aide course when no duration was specified. There were five such instances. Hours volunteered therefore were underestimated by at least that amount.

An estimated total of 8,965 hours could be identified. This averaged 65 hours per volunteer per year of 80 hours per household per year. The range for individuals was from one to 564 hours per year.

Of the individual volunteers, 26 (19 per cent) gave time for both fundraising and service.

INCOME

In the larger sample, whether a household volunteered service time or fundraising time varied significantly (p=.10) based on income. A significantly higher percentage (p =.01) (25 per cent) of households with incomes of $15,000 or more volunteered service time than households with low or middle incomes (13 per cent and 14 per cent respectively). Similarly, a higher percentage of high income households volunteered time for fundraising. Those with incomes of $7,999 or less contributed a much lower percentage of time for fundraising (p=.01). (See Table I.)

(Table I about here)

Considering Maslow's Hierarchy of Human Needs, does this suggest that lower and middle income people even though they may have equal or greater time to volunteer are investing energies in dealing with their own problems?

FAMILY LIFE CYCLE

Three stages of family life cycle were used in analyzing the data: Early-- families with at least some children under 6 years, Middle-- families with children 6-18 years of age and no children under six years, Late--families with children 18 and over in the home or couples with no children and the husband 45 years and over. A fourth group consisted of those not in the family life cycle.

Volunteering both service or fundraising time was analyzed by Family Life Cycle.

Two life cycle stages volunteered more time than the other two: twenty-eight per cent of the households volunteering time were in the middle childrearing stage and 24 per cent were not in the family life cycle (single). Households were more likely to volunteer time for fundraising if they were in the middle childrearing stage (p=.05). Those households not in the family life cycle provided the lowest percentage of volunteers for fundraising. It is possible that volunteerism by school age children could explain the high percentage of households in the middle childrearing stage who volunteer.

School age children are old enough to collect funds door to door for charities and some participate in Ride a Bike for the Retarded, Walkathons and Muscular Dystrophy backyard carnivals. Our data on individual volunteers reveals, however, that over two-thirds of the youth volunteers are in households where at least one adult is also a volunteer in some capacity. (See Table II.)

(Table II about here)

A good source of help in the fundraising area seems to be teens. All the teens that volunteered time provide help in the fundraising area. One-third of them also volunteered service time. Your teens may be an untapped source of volunteer help. Their cause orientation could be the motivation for them to get out and become fundraisers.

SEX

The 126 volunteers were 28 per cent male and 72 per cent female. We found that a greater proportion of service volunteers were male (30 per cent) than of fundraising volunteers (22 per cent). However, number of hours volunteered for fundraising or service did not vary significantly by sex.

WORK STATUS

Although the actual numbers of male volunteers were small, it could be seen that a large percentage of men spent less than ten hours a year fundraising regardless of their work status (full time, part time, not employed). This was also true of women with regard to work status except among women who were retired from work. Sixty-seven per cent of this group spent more than 10 hours a year fundraising while less than 45 per cent of any other work status group of females spent more than ten hours a year.

Forty-one per cent of service time volunteers worked full time. Thirty-three per cent were housewives, ten per cent worked part time, the remainder were either students or retired. This same pattern exists for fundraising volunteers with increased percentages for part time and retired persons. The decrease is found among full time working volunteers.

EDUCATION

The volunteers had more education than census data indicate for the county as a whole: twenty-four per cent had less than a high school diploma (compared to 57 per cent county); thirty-six per cent were high school graduates (compared to 25 per cent county); and 40 per cent had some post high school schooling or training (compared to 17 per cent county). Level of education, however, was not a significant variable in explaining variance in number of hours volunteered for service or fundraising.

AGE

The kind of volunteering individuals did varied by age. Of the older two groups, 40 to 59 year olds represented 54 per cent of the service volunteers and 47 per cent of the fundraisers. The 60 to 78 year olds represented only nine per cent of the Service volunteers but 15 per cent of the fundraisers. While age group did not significantly affect number of organizations service time was given to, it did influence number of fundraising hours ($p=.02$). While the greatest number in each age group volunteered less than 11 hours, the number of volunteers who gave more hours to fundraising increased by age group so that 36 per cent of those over 60 were contributing more than 21 hours to fundraising.

RESIDENCE

Location of residence in the county did not significantly affect whether or not a household volunteered either service time or time for fundraising. While the act of volunteering did not vary significantly with location of residence, the number of hours of service time volunteered by town residents was markedly lower than for city and open country residents. ($p=.05$). More fundraising hours beyond ten hours tended to be volunteered by city residents and then by towns' residents but results were not significant. The explanation for this seems to lie in the locational distribution of the other demographic characteristics of volunteers. The locational distribution of volunteers by sex is fairly proportioned. The age and work status distribution are not. The middle age group, which contributed a lot of service time, is overrepresented in the country and underrepresented in the city. Those not in the family life cycle, who also contributed a lot of service time, are very underrepresented in the towns and overrepresented in the county and city. The oldest age group which contributed a lot of fundraising hours, is greatly overrepresented in the city and underrepresented in the towns and countryside.

The distribution of those volunteers working full time was also disproportionate with a higher per cent living in the countryside. Seventy-five per cent of those volunteers who are retired live in the city with very few living in the towns or countryside. A disproportionate number of volunteers working part time live in towns. They tended not to volunteer service time. Could it be that the older people in the city volunteer more because of proximity or because of concentration of opportunities and that the countryside volunteers do so because family life cycle outweighs inconvenience or as response to isolation? Are the full time workers in the countryside farmers who have somewhat more flexible work days even though less time? Does the town dweller lacking variety of opportunity and not spurred by isolation tend not to volunteer service?

TIME VOLUNTEERED

Thirty-five per cent of the service volunteers gave more than 97 hours per year. Fundraising is an activity comparatively shorter in duration and less frequently occurring. No one volunteered over 90 hours a year for this activity even when working for a number of organizations. The median number of hours volunteered for fundraising was five and one-half. Seventy-one per cent of the fundraisers only volunteered to one organization and 70 per cent gave less than 11 hours a year for fundraising.

Seventy-nine per cent of the service volunteers served only one organization but only ten per cent gave less than 11 hours of service.

FEELINGS ABOUT VOLUNTEERISM

Sixty per cent of the volunteers enjoyed their volunteer work, 29 per cent felt that it was a duty or obligation to volunteer their time, 11 per cent disliked their volunteer work.

One-third of the volunteers volunteered time to their church. The Red Cross had 21 per cent of the volunteers and over half of them gave blood. The Heart Fund had 18 per cent of the volunteers and Cancer Drive 11.5 per cent. The other organizations or groups of organizations had less than ten per cent of the volunteers serving them.

Because of the distribution of volunteers among a multitude of organizations, it would be misleading to discuss percentages of volunteers who disliked, felt an obligation to, or enjoyed working for specific organizations. Three organizations using six volunteers for fundraising did not have any of these volunteers who expressed enjoyment about providing this service; United Fund, Multiple Sclerosis, and Salvation Army. Sixteen organizations with 39 volunteers had 100 per cent of their volunteers expressing enjoyment about the service provided regardless of the tasks performed. They were 4-H, volunteer fire departments, other membership organizations, YMCA, school, government, civic organizations, homemakers, Cropwalk for the Hungry, Coast Guard, Farmer's Groups, Alcoholics Anonymous, Planned Parenthood, Goodwill Industries, Boy Scouts, and the Lung Association.

Another 14 organizations had some volunteers who either disliked what they did or felt it was their duty rather than expressing enjoyment.

Analysis of what is done by the volunteer was grouped into four categories: (1) time spent in organizational maintenance, for example, being president of an organization, (2) time spent directly with "clients", for example, 4-H Leader, (3) fundraising, either to maintain the organization or to be distributed by them, and (4),a small category, donating blood.

Responses designating how the individual felt about their volunteer activity fell into three major categories: (1) enjoy, (2) feel an obligation or duty to do it, (3) dislike doing it. In addition, there were nine responses indicating the volunteer derived some personal benefit from the action and did it for that reason.

The most frequent task, fundraising, a task done by 132 volunteers also drew the most responses of dislike (11). Comments accompanying this response can be generalized as "I dislike only seeing my neighbors when I'm asking for money. I don't like going door to door but no one else will do it". In addition to those who disliked fundraising, 27 per cent of the fundraisers did it out of a sense of duty or obligation either to the organization or to the community or society as a whole. However, 64 per cent of the fundraisers said they enjoyed volunteering this way.

It may be that the door to door style of fundraising is causing the negative feeling. Other methods could possibly be more enjoyable to volunteer. It seems that where a service is connected to fundraising, the feeling is more positive. There may also be a relationship to enjoyment and the degree of social interaction in a group context. The rejection risk in a one on one situation is much higher than in a group activity.

Volunteering time to maintain the organization and time directly to "clients" had similar frequency (34) and (35). However, the difference between them is marked. Time volunteered directly to "clients" drew only a response of enjoyment. Time spent in organizational maintenance on the whole was enjoyed 82 per cent but 12 per cent did it from a sense of duty and six per cent disliked it.

Giving blood is a rather unique volunteer act specific to the Red Cross and mentioned by 13 of the volunteers. Thirty-nine per cent enjoyed giving blood, eight per cent felt it was their duty, 15 per cent disliked it and 39 per cent did it to protect their families.

CONCLUSION

Based on these findings, if we were looking for a service volunteer, we would probably be more successful if we looked for people who were:

(1) More highly educated than the general population

(2) With children between six and 18 years of age or single

(3) Female (three out of four)

(4) Higher Income

(5) Between 40 and 59 years old

(6) Working full time or a housewife

If we were looking for a fundraiser, we would adjust the above criteria and include:

(1) Retired women and part time workers

(2) Teens

(3) Middle income as well as upper income persons

(4) Expect even fewer men

MONTGOMERY COUNTY

The Montgomery County study of Extension homemaker club volunteers revealed that 44 per cent of its membership of women were involved in some type of volunteer activity. On the average, these women spent 3.82 hours per week doing volunteer work. To provide additional insight into this particular group of volunteers, we looked at data which revealed that 99 per cent were married. Ninety-eight per cent lived in individual housing, 48 per cent had resided in the county for less than ten years and the average age was approximately 40. Seventy-three per cent lived in the suburbs, two per cent lived in an urban area and 25 per cent identified themselves as rural residents. Twenty per cent of the women indicated they were employed. The women identified themselves as being highly involved in their extension homemaker clubs with 79 per cent indicating that they were exposed to monthly programs and 52 per cent indicating that they always attended.

AREAS OF VOLUNTEERING

In looking at the areas in which these women did volunteer work, our data showed that over 50 per cent contributed time in three or more areas. Those that contributed in three or more areas tended to contribute more hours per week than those who did not. (Two categories of time were used in the analysis: less than four and four or more hours). Seventy per cent of the women indicated that they did volunteer work for the church. Sixty-two per cent indicated that they gave time to the school. Twenty-three per cent contributed time to civic projects.

Those that gave time in this area tended to contribute more hours than those who were not involved in the civic programs. (p=.09).

The next largest area of time contribution was to youth programs with 15 per cent of the women contributing time in this area. There was a significant difference in the number of hours given by the women contributing time to youth programs with those involved giving more time. (p=.01). For the purposes of this study, 4-H as a youth program was handled separately. The feeling was that extension homemakers clubs' members would probably also be involved in the extension 4-H and youth program. However, only six per cent of the women contributed time as volunteers to 4-H.

Another area of major volunteer work was to the hospitals with 12 per cent contributing time in this area. A number of factors were looked at to determine if they related to the number of hours these women were willing to contribute. These included length of county residence, years married, number of children, age of youngest child, age of oldest child, number of children at home, the homemaker's age, area of residence, employment and the involvement and training received at homemaker's clubs monthly training meetings. None of these areas approached significance.

THE CLUB UNIT

Further investigation of the data was made based on "club units". For the purpose of this analysis, a club unit consisted of all members who volunteer from the same club. There were 50 club units consisting of three or more persons that were included in the analysis. Using the club unit as a basis of analysis, it was determined that there was a significant difference (p=.05) based on the age of the youngest child. Those club units in which the age of the youngest child was between six and 11 years contributed more volunteer time than did those whose youngest child was in the age group of birth to five or 12 and older. No significant difference could be found based on number of children, age of the oldest child, age of homemakers, area of residence or whether or not the persons were employed.

Two areas approached significance (p=.11). The first was county residence; the units whose members had been county residents from 11 to 15 years contribute more hours of volunteer time than did those with 16 years of residence or more. This group contributed more hours than did those with between one and ten years of county residence. The second area that tended towards significance was based on number of children at home. Those with two children or three and more children contributed more time as a volunteer than those with one or less children.

This finding supports previous research which indicated that volunteerism increases with the number of children one has and that this may occur as adults become involved in the childrens' activities or it may be that the adult desires to get away from the family and children for awhile. Previous research has also supported the concept that people reside in a community for a period of time before they become affiliated with community activities.

Interpretation of those data based on club units raises a number of questions which are not answered in this paper: How can we best identify organizations from which volunteers can be recruited? Are there certain organizations that more likely attract persons oriented toward volunteerism? Do certain organizations support and encourage particular types of volunteer activities? What methods might best be used to identify and recruit volunteer help from organized groups? There is need for more research into this area of volunteerism.

*Data for the Montgomery County Study was collected by Bonnie O. Tanner, "The Program Palnning Process at Montgomery County Extension Homemaker Clubs 1976", (Published Master's Thesis, The University of Maryland, College Park, Maryland, 1977.

Data for Frederick County was collect as a part of a study, "Community Service For People in the Nonmetropolitan Northeast", (NE-77) 1974, Northeast Agricultural Experiment Stations cooperating.

TABLE I

INCIDENCE OF VOLUNTEERING IN FREDERICK COUNTY HOUSEHOLDS BY INCOME

Service Volunteering

Household Income		Yes	No	Totals
Up to $7,999	f (o)	10	64	74*
	f (e)	12	62	
$8-14,999		14	84	98
		17	81	
Over $15,000		17	51	68
		12	56	
		41	199	240 **

$x^2 = 4.20$ df = 2 p = .10

Fundraising Volunteering

Household Income	Yes	No	Totals
Up to $7,999	21	54	75
	32	43	
$8-14,999	38	59	97*
	42	59	
Over $15,000	36	32	68
	29	39	
	95	145	240**

$x^2 = 9.68$ df = 2 p = .01

*No information - 1 case

**Six refused income information

TABLE II

INCIDENCE OF VOLUNTEERING IN FREDERICK COUNTY BY FAMILY LIFE CYCLE

Service Volunteers

Family Life Cycle		Yes	No	Total
Early	f (o)	7	64	71
Childrearing	f (e)	12	59	
Middle		21	54	75
Childrearing		13	62	
Late		7	64	71
Post Childrearing		12	59	
Not in FLC		7	22	29
		5	24	
Totals		42	204	246

$x^2 = 12.5666$ df = 3 p = .0057

Fundraising Volunteers

Family Life Cycle	Yes	No	Total
Early	23	49	72
Childrearing	28	44	
Middle	38	36	74
Childrearing	29	45	
Late	28	43	71
Post Childrearing	28	43	
Not in FLC	8	21	29
	11	18	
Totals	42	204	246

$x^2 = 7.7960$ df = 3 p = .0504

VOLUNTEERING THROUGH LEISURE TIME: AN IMPORTANT PART OF THE CAREER DEVELOPMENT PROCESS

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Introduction

Most people have traditionally defined themselves in terms of work. If you ask someone who he or she is, after their name they are most likely to tell you what their occupation is or what they do for a living. That is how the names Farmer, Miller, Carpenter, Barber, Plumber and others got started. Thus it has been that people turn to their jobs as a way of defining themselves and attempting to give meaning to their lives. This made sense when work was viewed as the principal focus of a person's life, involving their home and often their family. A completed product was often the end result. However, a job has now become, for many people, detached from the rest of living. One goes to a factory or a place of business, perhaps some miles away, works by the clock, and may work on only one small part of a production line process, or they may work in an equally minute white collar position. This often leads to a process generally referred to as worker (Sheppard and Harrich, 1972). The division of labor, basic to the industrial revolution and automation, has also led to the breakdown of one way a person has had to giving meaning to his life. A person now needs some way of finding the satisfaction and involvement formerly found for many people in the dignity of work.

An article in a recent issue of Newsweek (1973) suggests that the answer is job redesign and a general humanization of the work place. A series of stories in the Washington Star - News (Fialka, 1973) arrived at essentially the same solution. Foulkes (1969) in a significant study calls for a more creative approach to designing more meaningful work. A survey by Sorrenson (1973) reported that most Americans do like their jobs after all and prefer work to non-work. Another way to bring this about is to concentrate on the process of career development over one's total life span and to define career development to include both work and leisure.

Career development is becoming a matter of national attention in the United States. The publications, Work in America (Task Force, 1977), and Studs Terkel's Working (1974) are best sellers. More and more concern is being shown for assisting people of all ages with vocational adjustment. These include young entry worker, the mid-career person or preretirement worker. The importance of a person's initial selection of an occupation is being stressed more and more in our schools and colleges.

At the same time, there is a renewed interest in leisure. Much research is being conducted concerned with non-work hours--how much do people have and how do they use it. Newsweek and Time both have weekly sections on leisure related activities. There is a popular new publication called Travel and Leisure. The Journal of Leisure Research is a professional publication emphasizing the recreational aspects of leisure. Leisure Today is a regular part of the Journal of Health, Physical Education and Recreation. A center for leisure studies has been established at the University of South Florida under the leadership of Max Kaplan. Under these conditions, it seems imperative to examine in detail the interrelationships between work, leisure and career development.

Some Concepts of Leisure

Historically, leisure was not of any great concern, because the average worker did not have any! What to do with time off from work was not a problem because not many people had any, at best only the wealthy. In the last one hundred years this has begun to change. The work week has been reduced from 70-80 hours a century ago to 37½-40 hours per week today. It does not appear there will be a further major reduction in the work week in the immediate future.

The accelerating rate of technological change is likely to result in increased leisure, both at home and at work. We're already seeing leisure created by legislative action such as daylight saving time and moving holidays to create 3-day weekends. We are seeing experimentation in business and industry with 4-day and even 3-day work weeks and further extension of the concept of flextime. Workers are getting longer vacations. Kegley (1973) has recently cited companies which are liberalizing vacation policies by shortening service requirements or adding another week to the maximum for veteran employees. Another new idea is to give workers double pay for vacation time so they can do more with their increased leisure. People are retiring earlier and living longer. They are also in much better health during these retirement years. Almost everyone in the United States is able to spend a smaller percentage of his or her life working and a larger percentage in part-time or full time leisure!

Despite poverty, which is being reduced annually in the U.S.A., people do have more money to take advantage of the opportunities for leisure. It is estimated (Leonitiadeo, 1973) that the leisure market is between $50 - $150 billion annually in this country. There is an increased number of recreation facilities and greater access to means of transportation to get people to them. There are publicly and privately supported programs in the artistic and musical pursuits available for people of all ages. There is also a growing interest in all types of crafts.

With the expansion in leisure activities there has been a concurrent growth in the theoretical aspects of leisure. Many people have been attempting to define it. Like love, leisure is difficult to define. Leisure has been thought of mostly in terms of time. That is, leisure is free time as opposed to work time or time on the job. Simply, work is what you get paid for doing, leisure is what you don't get paid for doing. This sets leisure up in opposition to work, but it may need to be seen as complementary to work. Leisure is also more than just time, and all time not spent on the job is still not really free time. Both work and leisure defy such simplistic definitions.

Work and Leisure Defined

First, let us define work (Task Force, 1972) as "an activity that produces something of value for other people." A recent Geneva Symposium (1971) suggests that leisure time is the time at an individual's complete disposal after he has completed his work and fulfilled his other obligations. Noe (1969) concludes that leisure is the activity resulting after the fulfillment of institutional needs. Brightbill (1960) states that leisure is discretionary time, when we are free to rest or do what we choose as opposed to time required for existence and subsistence.

Kaplan (1971) says that "Leisure consists of relatively self-determined activities and experiences that fall into one's economically free-time roles that are seen as leisure by the participants, that are psychologically pleasant in anticipation and recollection, that potentially cover the whole range of commitment and intensity, that contain characteristic norms and restraints, and provide opportunities for recreation, personal growth and service to others." He goes on to say that leisure is an manifestation of people's desire to be a person and to develop symbols and tools in the mastery of self and environment.

We define leisure then as: relatively self determined activities and experiences which are available due to having discretionary income tax, time and social behavior. This activity or experience may be physical, intellectual, creative or volunteer.

A person's occupation (an occupation is defined as work activity that occurs in many different settings) has obvious effects on his leisure. It will be one of the major factors in derermining how much time one has for leisure activities and how much money will be available. Recreational activities are often offered by employers and companies. At the same time, leisure can be a means for discovering or expanding an interest which leads to a new type of employment. However, it is leisure's function of complementing work in try-out and complimentary activities in giving meaning to a person's life that makes it especially crucial to career development.

Some Concepts of Volunteerism

The very essence of the recreation/leisure movement in this country is based on volunteerism. From the beginning of the Boston Sand Gardens in 1885 to the development of horseback riding programs for the handicapped in 1977, volunteers have played major roles in the development of leisure opportunities for American citizens. A lady physician brought the concept of the Sand Gardens home to Boston from a trip to Europe. It was not long until she had mothers taking turns, on a voluntary basis, in supervising the play of their children in the "Sand Garden" playground. They were eventually paid.

There have been a number of prominent individuals serving our professional recreation and leisure society in many capacities including Honorary President, Executive Vice-President, and Chairman of the Board. This includes famous figures like Theordore Roosevelt and Laurence Rockfeller.

Joseph Lee, a prominent lawyer and philanthropist, who is known as the "Father of the Recreation Movement," gave of his time, energy and money, on a voluntary basis, to better the play opportunities of many children in the Boston area. He acted on a personal voluntary basis for many years before serving as the second president, for 27 years, of the National Recreation and Park Association in the early 1900's. We have a history, in recreation and leisure, of utilizing voluntary assistance from all segments of society, from all races, religions, ages, and both sexes. It is not unusual for those of us in the leisure field to volunteer our skills, as they relate to some aspect of work, to assist others. Nor is it unusual to observe individuals who give of their services during their free time to assist others and look upon this as a leisure activity.

Another important aspect of leisure and volunteerism is when one learns a leisure activity skill, teaches this skill to others on a voluntary basis and eventually pursues this leisure activity as a partial or full vocation. (There is a gentleman friend in California who is legally blind. He received a pipe carving set from his brother at Christmas and before the next Christmas, he was selling his hand-made pipes for $25.00 to $100.00 each. This lucrative vocation began as an avocation.)

Volunteerism Defined

George Romney, (1975, p. 9) who has served as Chairman of the National Council on Voluntary Action, has recently stated that, "To me, volunteerism simply means people doing things for themselves and for one another." To volunteer one's services or time is done in many styles, forms and ways. Likewise, individuals become volunteers for many different reasons; however, there does appear to be some consistency in the way people think about, or define, volunteerism.

Just as Romney indicated that volunteering meant doing something for someone, so Isolde Chapin Weinberg (1975, p. 10) says that, "the spirit of volunteering--of one person helping another--goes back to the beginning of human history." The Webster's New Collegiate Dictionary defines a volunteer as one who enters into, or offers himself for any service of his own free will. Therefore, there appear to be two important characteristics of the volunteer experience; one is that the volunteer helps, in some way, another person and the other element is that the decision to offer one's self as a volunteer is a matter of doing so on one's own volition.

In developing a justification for volunteerism, Mrs. Eunice Kennedy Shriver (1975, p. 39) quotes Francis Bacon who wrote, "In this theater of man's life, it is reserved only for God and Angels to be lookers-on." She indicates that this is still the best rationale for volunteerism. We should not remain idly on the sidelines of the game of life; we should become involved in an attempt to develop opportunities so that all of mankind will have a happier, fuller existence. We can assist in this process by personal intervention.

A new concept related to volunteerism that we are hearing more about is that of service learning. Service learning (Eberly and Carney, 1976) appears to be the meshing together or the integration of the process of volunteering to accomplish a needed task with educational growth. Service learning in quite prominent in the school setting, be that university, college, high school and in some cases, elementary schools. Service learning is used predominently by students as a method of testing future vocational choices. It is a very important step in the process of career education.

When mentioning career education, (Eberly and Carney, 1976, p. 1) reference must be made to the community service dimension. In the total labor force of 90 million persons, one American out of six works in the field of education, health, or one of a variety of social services. In addition, one of every four Americans over the age of 13 volunteers his services in some kind of community endeavor. Among persons 24 and over who have completed college, the rate of volunteering is 45%. At these rates, one half of all students in higher education can expect to become involved in community service, either on a paid or unpaid basis.

The Nature of the Volunteer

For many years, the image of the volunteer called upon to perform a myriad of activities has been that of a middle-aged, middle-class woman with time on her hands (Weinberg, 1975). Today, the public image is changing, slowly catching up with reality. According to the Census Bureau, 59% of all volunteers are women. Volunteers may be very young, sixth graders tutoring first graders in reading or math. (There are sixth grade students in several schools in California assisting the teachers of multi-handicapped children in the public schools.) They may be old, 80-year-old men and women working with retarded children (or, as some parents are, working as foster grandparents). They may be all ages in between, all races, and come from every economic and social background.

More and more volunteers are working in the most intimate areas of people's lives--birth control, abortion, drugs, counseling, therapy, rape, suicide prevention, child abuse (Weinberg, 1975, p. 46). They are taking on the problems of a technological society--air, water, and soil pollution, nutrition, the quality of education, the cultural environment. In an era of big business, big government, big machines, and incomprehensible scientific breakthroughs, volunteering represents a personal touch, the closeness of the one-to-one approach or the warmth of a group working together towards a goal. The role of advocate, of pressuring for legislative and societal changes, has become increasingly the role of the volunteer.

It is our thesis that career development must be involved with a person's total life, including both work and leisure. Occupational and leisure activities vary for people from one age to another. Some activities would be appropriate at one age or stage of development and not at another. But there is still a continuity, based on the developmental process. The options that are available to a person at one stage are dependent in part on what has been done before. What a person does in the present or the past will help determine what will be done in the future. The concept of the life span in this regard is vital.

Childhood

During childhood, from birth to 12 years, the child learns a great deal about himself and the world. It is at this time that attitudes are formed by the child about what he can or cannot do or what kind of person he is that will probably stay with him throughout his life. The child needs exposure to a wide range of activities and interests. He needs opportunities for exploration and freedom to attempt new things. Children attempt new areas only if they have an openness to failure and are not overwhelmed by it. In encouraging the development of leisure time pursuits the multiple dimensions of the intellect, such as the physical, creative, social, artistic, and mechanical as well as the traditional verbal and mathematical must be recognized. If all of these areas can be valued equally then every child should be able to have some important and genuine successes.

Each child can then acquire a self-concept of a person who can do a variety of things well, even if he is not successful in every area all the time. He is free to develop as an individual if he sees himself as worthwhile.

There are many examples across the country of children, usually those in grades five and six, volunteering their time with younger children for specific reasons. In many schools, sixth grade students are working with children with special needs during the regular school day. This may involve the volunteer supervising multi-handicapped children in grades one and two as well as 11 or 12-year-olds who volunteer for special assignments within the school setting. Often this can be accomplished best under the supervision of college or university students.

Clearly, the later years of childhood are the crucial years with respect to establishing a pattern of volunteering for career development purposes. This is, of course, when there will be a confirmation or denial of interests, skills, talents and aptitudes which form the bases for life span activities.

Adolescent

Ages 13 to 18, adolescence, is the time of psychological, physical, social, and intellectual maturation. This period forms the basis for in-depth experiences of a leisure nature. Clubs and group activities provide new opportunities. This is the age when it is first possible to play games like chess and bridge in a mature fashion and in time to teach others through volunteer efforts.

The schools need to foster an awareness of the importance of the leisure potential for all youth. For instance, intramurals for men and women, which provide an opportunity for physical development and enjoyment for all students, could be stressed over the interscholastic teams, which provide these opportunities for only a few. Students should be allowed to take courses to expand their interests and experiences. Courses that are regarded as technical-vocational could also be an introduction to leisure activities. For vocational students, music, art, or reading could be leisure interests.

Students need to assist in becoming aware that a career is more than just work. They need to understand the interrelations between leisure - work to their career development.

The adolescent is often found volunteering his service in a variety of capacities in an attempt to further the career development process. Thousands of young people in this age range are found to be involved with groups such as Teens Aid the Retarded (TARS), Special Olympics and other groups organized to better the conditions of less fortunate people as well as to determine appropriateness of a future career working with a disabled group of individuals.

Other examples involving this age group includes those students involved in distributive education programs which are organized on a service learning basis. Many 13 to 16-year-olds also are forced to volunteer their services because they are too young to be employed. There are many programs around the nation which provide the opportunity for young people to volunteer their services in a variety of ways. Here are a few examples from different parts of the United States.

Los Angeles. The recreation and parks department's Park Rangers Program utilizes the volunteer efforts of teenagers who live in the nearby community of Griffith Park. These teenagers serve as junior park rangers and are trained by veteran members of the staff to assist in such activities as crowd control, parking, park information, and nature hikes. (Parks and Recreation, 1975, p. 30)

Vancouver, Washington. Volunteer services answered the need of the city's youth by offering invaluable on-the-job experience for young people squeezed out of the tight job market. This experience, in recreation, social, and government agencies, has provided hundreds of young people with that indispensable job hunting tool--previous experience. (Parks and Recreation, 1975, p. 30)

Van Buren Township, Michigan. Van Buren's Parks and Recreation Department has worked out an arrangement with the public schools which allows high school students to volunteer their time to community services. In return for their services, the students receive credit towards their graduation requirements. (Parks and Recreation, 1975, p. 33) (We have used students as volunteers in day camping programs for handicapped children in Kansas and California. They were always interested and enthusiastic about their work. Many of them wanted to work with the mentally or emotionally handicapped in some professional capacity in the future. This was one opportunity to learn more about their potential future vocations).

Young Adult

As a young adult, from ages 18 to 24, the person reaches what may be the crest of his physical, intellectual, and social development. He also has the freedom to go off and to pursue in detail the things that he is interested in, whether it is backpacking in the wilderness or writing music. He probably does not have any great financial responsibilities nor any great commitment to or investment in a single job, so he is relatively free to stop or start work. Also now, for the first time, education becomes available as a leisure pursuit, since it is not required. Adult education, recreation, home study, military, and correspondence courses are all possible educational avenues. This is a time of risk taking, when a person can try new things and explore new possibilities. Leisure and work are now actively involved in the career development process.

The young adult typically explores many avenues during the career development process before coming to grips with a specific vocational choice. Many young adults who attend colleges or universities explore, test and evaluate potential career areas through volunteer and part-time work experiences. This is especially true since a large number of college age individuals volunteer their time and a common form of employment of the American public is in the health, education and social services areas. These factors help explain why it is quite common for young people to volunteer as teachers aides, recreation leaders, and in other capacities in the "helping professions" to offer assistance to others as well as to try out, investigate, or train for, future vocations.

Some examples of young adults volunteering their services to benefit other people are briefly discussed here.

Philadelphia. A young man, paralyzed from the waist down, volunteers his services at the Carousel House in Philadelphia. He coached and managed a paraplegic wheelchair basketball team. He has conducted classes and held special clinics in paraplegic weightlifting for severely physically handicapped young adults and adults. His services go on and on as do the services of many other volunteers of Carousel House and other programs within the city. (Crawford, 1975, p. 46)

Berkeley, California. The City of Berkeley initiated a coordinated Volunteer Service Program in the Recreation, Parks, and Community Services Department in January, 1975. Almost 200 student volunteers who received class credit were recruited before August, 1975, primarily from the University of California and Berkeley High School. (*Parks and Recreation*, 1975, p. 32)

Van Buren, Michigan. Eastern Michigan University students majoring in recreation receive credit toward graduation in exchange for their voluntary services with the Township's Department of Parks and Recreation. Popular assignments of the students involve working with members of special populations.

Adulthood

The next epoch, adulthood, goes from 25 to 40 years of age. The adult man and woman are probably working at a job. The job may determine leisure pursuits and the time available for leisure. The expectations of the job, such as the executive who carries out business while playing golf, or the blue collar worker whose co-workers expect him to bowl or play softball, may determine leisure activities. The type of company benefit or opportunities that are provided for leisure are important. Whether the job is done essentially alone or in a group may affect the type of leisure chosen. Vacations provide time for more and different leisure activities. People go on trails, camping, on tours, on archeological digs, to art camps, and to school during their vacations.

New potential for leisure comes to the adult through the family. Of course, this can also be a restriction of leisure. Each family can also affect the use of leisure. It is also possible at this time that what developed as a leisure interest can become a job or develop into a business. Women who are at home can use leisure opportunities, such as volunteer work in a hospital, school or public agency to remain current with job skills. Adults working regularly on the job may experience something called job shock. This is the realization that the work being done is dull, boring, or non-fulfilling and that it is going to be that way for the greater part of life. Now a person begins to live for the time off the job, for leisure.

If the adult finds that satisfaction received from work is not adequate he/she will attempt to gain this satisfaction elsewhere - leisure time activities through volunteering may be an appropriate alternative. It has happened quite frequently that the avocational activity produced enough satisfaction and financial reward that it developed into the primary occupation.

Consider the Following Examples:

"Circle of Children", a recent T.V. film, is a drama about emotionally disturbed children. Mary MacCracken, separated from her husband, is a well-to-do women with time on her hands. She volunteers at a school for autistic children to fill the void. Eventually, she becomes head teacher. The movie is based on MacCracken's autobiographical book.

V.I.P. (Volunteers in Parks) was established in July, 1970. The program was created to facilitate the recruitment, training, and service of volunteers in conjunction with the activities of the National Park Service. The program has been a huge success as thousands are volunteering their services in the following ways: interpretation of tidal pool ecology for visitors, teaching the art of crossbow shooting, assisting handicapped visitors at Cabrillo National Monument, California, teaching summer visitors at Yellowstone National Park, Wyoming. A National Capital Parks program featured an aquatic biologist who served as a science advisor to the lightship Chesapeake's environmental and education program. An astronomer with the Smithsonian Institution has given interpretive sky walks at Everglades, Canyonlands, and Arches National Parks. (Parks and Recreation, 1975, p. 8)

Mid-Career

At mid-career, ages 40 to 60, the worker can use leisure to provide the sense of fulfillment and mastery that may not be acquired from work. The worker may be experiencing more job dissatisfaction if it is perceived that he has reached a peak and further promotions are unlikely. A person can use leisure activities to alleviate this dissatisfaction. Most people will probably be at the peak of development in many continuous interests. Whatever it is that an individual likes to do it now may be at its best; the mid-life person may be the expert people ask, even if only to family and friends.

At this time the person also needs to be developing new interests. There may be the empty nest syndrome (when children grow up and leave the home) so the person needs new ways to feel necessary. There may be expanded opportunities for leisure, both for continuing old interests and developing new ones. More money may be available if the family has reached the peak of its earning power and at the same time is no longer supporting children so he has fewer financial responsibilities.

Mid-career is the time when a person begins to prepare for retirement. It becomes a different kind of future orientation. He needs to prepare for retirement, not more years of work, both psychologically and financially. If one develops leisure interests that can be carried on during retirement then there will be some continuity from a full-time work life to a full-time leisure life.

In developing one's leisure interests in preparation for retirement it may be found that this is a full time commitment in itself in addition to maintaining the regular position of employment. Even though there may be expanding time for leisure interest the amount of time and energy expended in participating in voluntary activities which may lead to a career change is minimal.

It can be argued, however, that one is voluntarily participating in leisure activities in preparation for the forthcoming state of luxury - retirement. Therefore, voluntary participation in leisure time activities should be encouraged.

College or universities should be able to provide needed skills to assist individuals during this age period to seek ways of becoming productive volunteers both for immediate involvement and later satisfaction and maximum involvement. It may be during the age that adults need transitional skill to help them prepare for more productive volunteering in programs like the Peace Corps, retired executives, Church World Service and others.

Retirement

Retirement, age 60+, does involve total identification and self-fulfillment for the individual with leisure. There is now time available - vast amounts of time! For some people, there is more time than they know what to do with. Other problems may arise if the wife maintains her work patterns in the home and the husband is underfoot. Leisure activities could provide the individual with alternate choices for the use of time for the first in one's life. The retired person's leisure activities may change simply because of a reduced income; one may no longer be able to afford the things previously enjoyed. The availability of resources in the community can also affect the retired person. Some communities have practically nothing to offer in terms of leisure for retired people. Other places, especially retirement communities, provide an overabundance of opportunities for leisure activities and for the development and pursual of leisure interests. One's work related volunteer activities such as unions, professional associations or other groups may provide a new source of leisure satisfaction upon retirement when there is suddenly no reason to say "no" to a major job or responsibility as a volunteer.

Career change during the retirement years is now a very common occurrence. Since the mandatory and suggested age for retirement has been reduced and since many individuals decide to retire early from military and government service as well as business and industry, the entry into a second vocation is becoming common practice.

Some career changes are related to past leisure and/or volunteer experiences whereas many other changes are related strictly to interest and profit motives. There are many examples of the retired person going from business executive to high school tutoring, or from a white collar worker to a cook in a university cafeteria as has happened here at Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University. Other examples relate to the military retiree who works as a recreation director or develops and runs a school for special children after having developed these interests through voluntary activities during his military career.

Some Other Examples From Around the Nation:

Philadelphia. There is an 83-year-old Philadelphia woman who volunteers her services as a sewing instructor for both adults and teenagers. (Crawford, 1975, p. 16)

Los Angeles. Henrietta Goodstone is an 80-year-old volunteer in the recreation and parks department's (RSVP) program in Los Angeles. She spends one day a week at Hollywood High School where she does filing the the school library with young students.

Bernard Shulgasser, former school principal in Mexico City, now lives in Los Angeles and is active with RSVP. The 71-year-old Shulgasser is a master of seven languages and volunteers his time tutoring a Spanish class at Hollywood High School. (*Parks and Recreation*, 1975, p. 30)

A retired businessman in Los Angeles, now in a retirement villa, says, "At night, I go home to the place where people end their lives. But, in the morning, I go to school to help children build their lives. It gives me a reason to get up in the morning and a reason to live. He is now 83 and going strong, and he has taught several mentally retarded children to develop marketable skills; free. (Clark, 1975, p. 17)

The Role of the College and University

Given this backdrop of leisure and career development through the life span, it is obvious that colleges and universities can play a significant role in the process. They can serve as the catalyst for student development through volunteering at a crucial period in the young person's life. They can provide unique experiences, try outs, modeling, credit and now credit options to name just a few. Three typical examples about which we are both familiar are outlined below to certify to this period as one of great openness to volunteering on the part of the 18-22 year old - if just provided with the opportunity.

Very few, if any, programs in the world can boast of as much volunteer support as is given the Special Olympics for the mentally retarded. More than 150,000 participates in the Special Olympics and over 20,000 in the Kennedy Foundation's new families Play to Grow Program (Shriver, 1975, p. 39). Volunteers of *all ages* and *all walks of life* give of their talents, time and energies to make the many events across the nation a success. We would surmise from our own involvement in Special Olympics that many people volunteer their services because it is an excellent opportunity to learn more about the nature of the clients, or students, with whom they will be working in the future. Many others volunteer their services because they have a particular skill--recreational or organizational--which they want to share. Still, many people give of their time because they really enjoy doing for others.

Many college and university students are numbered among the 150,000 volunteers involved with the Special Olympics and other similar programs. Virginia Tech will have a regional Special Olympics meet on May 14 involving 75 to 100 university students. These students give of their time, energy and efforts, but most importantly they give of themselves and their love. They serve as coaches, organizers, bus drivers, big brothers and sisters, timers, judges, and some volunteer their services as "huggers." As the contestants cross the finish line the "hugger" is there giving them honest, and well deserved praise, love and a big hug. No other single, organized program involved more college, university and high school students than does the Special Olympics for the mentally retarded.

Charlottesville, Virginia. The February, 1977 issues of the Madison House *Volunteer Newsletter* describes an outstanding effort on the behalf of university students to serve their community while at the same time sampling prospective future vocations. The volunteers had contributed the equivalent of $190,000 in working time during the Fall period. By the end of the calendar year, 1976, more than 1,000 volunteers were signed up for one of the thirteen programs sponsored by Madison House. More than 900 of these students were placed and working at least two hours a week.

According to the report the most popular program was Medical Services with 220 volunteers working in six wards of the University Hospital. The second and third most popular programs were Big Brothers/Big Sisters with 125 volunteers and Tutoring with 125 volunteers. This tremendous volunteer effort provides the students with the opportunity to gain first hand knowledge about various fields before making a total commitment to the field.

Blacksburg, Virginia. At this time, faculty members from several disciplines are volunteering our time to develop a week-long residential camping program for multi-handicapped retarded children from Lynchburg Training School. We have to rely on students volunteering their services, so that we can conduct the program. We have approximately 175 students from several disciplines on campus who have volunteered their time and energies to make this program, which begins on April 30, a real success.

This is the ultimate in service-learning as discussed by many people. For many of these students, this is an opportunity to discover if they believe their choice of a future vocation--that of working with handicapped children--is what they really want to do. For many of us, through this voluntary experience, we will learn new, or awaken dormant, leisure interests such as canoeing, archery, hiking, riflery, music or horseback riding.

We hope we have shown that volunteering through leisure is an important part of the career development process. To be sure there are obvious humanistic and social needs which are responded to by volunteering, but in addition it is a vital activity in the strengthening of the career development process.

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IMPACT OF VOLUNTEERISM

MANAGING PERSONAL CRISIS: THE NEUTRALITY ATTITUDE AND THE CONSTRUCTION OF EMPATHY IN A CRISIS COUNSELING CENTER

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INTRODUCTION

This is a study of a personal crisis center in a university town in southwestern Virginia. Our focus will be on the practical activities engaged in by counselors in managing trainees to manage personal crisis among clients. These management techniques, on the one hand, involve the generation of "empathy," an allededly "gut" level response implying the acceptance of the client as a suffering human being and the presentation of the counselor as an understanding human being; on the other hand, they involve the creation of an apparatus designed to deal efficiently with problem callers.

The junior author of this study joined the Center as a volunteer and went through the training program, keeping a diary and collecting written material from the center. At the conclusion of his training he participated in counseling activities at the Center, primarily as a telephone volunteer. He is a psychology student interested in a career in counseling and, in his own terms, a practicing Christian. This dual interest of his resulted in several personal confrontations with Center staff over offered statements of value and philosophy. He was, because of his background and interests, in a position to utilize distrust as a methodological device (cf. Garfinkel, 1967:50). The role of the senior author lay in guiding the junior author's research activities, helping him understand his own role in the situation and providing analysis capable of reasonably accounting for the phenomena at issue; he also selectively interviewed several knowledgeable persons at the Center in order to clarify and elaborate on certain points in this discussion. We have, in addition, invited members and volunteers from the Center to read the near final draft, and have, where appropriate, incorporated their comments.

In Garfinkel's terms (1967:10), "The recognizedly rational properties of their common-sense inquiries--their recognizedly consistent, or methodic, or uniform, or planful, etc. character--are somehow attainments of members' concerted activities . . . . Somehow is the problematic crux of the matter." Following Bittner (1974:78), we see organization as a reference to a "reproducible theme." The reproducible theme of the Personal Crisis Center is the management of personal crisis. "Somehow" crisis is managed; we believe through the construction of empathy based upon an alleged attitude of neutrality.

This is an organizational study, following Bittner's (1974:76) prescription, "that the study of the methodical use of the concept of organization seeks to describe the mechanisms of sustained and sanctioned relevance of the rational constructions to a variety of objects, events and occasions relative to which they are invoked." One of the meanings of this is that:

> We will not look to the obvious or conspicuous meaning of the expressions used in the scheme to direct us to objects or events which they identify. Rather, we will look for the way the scheme is brought to bear on whatever happens within the scope of its

> jurisdiction. The consequence of this step is that the question of what the scheme selects and neglects is approached by asking how certain objects and events, meet, or are made to meet, the specifications contained in the scheme. (Bittner, 1974:76)

We are interested in members' activities in investing and validating meanings crucial to the practical accomplishments and stated goals of the Personal Crisis Center.

Garfinkel (1967:49ff) discusses the production of social affect ("anxiety, guilt, shame or boredom . . . bewilderment and anger") in terms of "the socially structured conditions for their production" in daily life situations.[1] Sudnow (1967:8) proposes that categories of discourse be understood in terms of their procedural basis in organized activity. In the Center a rather explicit set of organizational procedures has been developed to structure social affect; in order that empathy should be achieved those members necessarily producing it are themselves trained in its production. As an organizational analysis this paper is concerned with, as Turner (1974:1) puts it, "a characterization of the work members do to sustain a social order" in which neutrality is alleged and empathy is valued. To this end we focus on the performances and structures utilized and provided by staff members attempting to contain the activities of volunteer counselors through the construction of empathy.

EMPATHY AND THE NEUTRALITY ATTITUDE

The Center emphasizes an open, unbiased attitude (a neutrality attitude) toward the caller's situation, offering emotional support and "exploring of alternatives" without imposing structure and opinion. The currently used training manual recognizes that, "a helper can never be totally objective, but this may not hinder his performance if he is able to distinguish his feelings from the speaker's." The manual adds that:

> There are behaviors that society or an individual may look down upon, but we do not choose to tell someone he is right or wrong. This is call non-judgmental help.

This non-judgmental help is often phrased in terms of the adoption of an attitude of neutrality toward the client-caller and alternative solutions to his problem.

Development of empathy and the neutrality attitude first of all requires that they not be questioned. The "principle of discipline" (Bittner, 1974:78), lending coherence and consistency to the organization, will "not be found in the field of means-end relations but in an all-pervading sense of piety (i.e., in accordance with Burke's definition of the term, a sure-footed conviction of 'what properly goes with what')" (Bittner, 1974:79). This "sense of piety" is manifested in the Center as adherence to the neutrality attitude. The junior author (and observer), because of his religious convictions, expressed opinions on several occasions about the Center's position in relation to pre-marital sex, drug use, suicide and abortion. These occasions resulted in the illumination of the real nature of the neutrality attitude.

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[1] Previous treatment of social situations and affective states has tended to focus on forms, functions or causes. For example, the work of Ball (1965), Becker (1931), Cooley (1902:102ff), Goffman (1967), and Williams (1942), is enlightening on the construction of affective states in everyday life. While enhancing appreciation of the problem, it is not directly relevant to understanding the organizational construction of affective states which is what we are concerned with in this paper.

One of the women with whom the junior author did overnight duty told him she was in favor of abortion as a means of birth control, assuming other measures failed, "in all cases" right up to the moment of birth. He was given the impression that most of the women there felt the same way. In a discussion of "values" during a training session, no one in the group expressed negative feelings about pre-marital sex, and one girl placed it on the level of a handshake. The junior author's conclusion was that, "They are welcome to this philosophy as long as they recognize it as a point of view; but what I object to is the labeling of permissiveness, especially in the case of drugs and suicide, as 'being unbiased.'"[2] In one of the training sessions the junior author encountered a situation best expressed in his own words:

> We managed to exchange some platitudes on each other's performance--nothing heavy--with Tom complimenting me on my "original" insight into the problems of the taped calls we had heard at the last meeting. Larry raised his eyebrows at that and provided our first negative feedback of the evening: He said I had expressed "some pretty strong biases" last time and he wondered if I would be able to keep my own feelings at arm's length when dealing with an actual phone-in case.
>
> The rest of our group sat by in interested silence as we discussed my "problem." Specifically, Larry was concerned with my attitude toward drug users and suicidal callers. I had no right to "pass judgment" on an individual's decision to use or not to use drugs, he said, nor did I have a right to try steering a caller away from suicide if that happened to be his reasoned choice of alternatives. The fundamental policy of the Center, he said, (and Diane, one of the counselors, nodded in agreement) was to assist a caller in comprehending and evaluating his problem without interfering with his freedom to decide for himself.

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[2] One respondent, in a typed critique of this paper, objected to the junior author's statement. Although her objection may at first appear valid in regard to the specific statement, she eventually, in the course of her critique, ended by agreeing with our general position. Her statement:

> I have not seen in this paper any example of proof of the labeling of permissiveness as unbiased . . . . In my experiences at (the Center) I have certainly found attitudes of permissiveness . . . . However, I did not find this permissiveness of any personal point of view labeled as unbiased. I heard points of view and biases expressed, but not parading as neutrality. I also heard conservative points of view questioned and people cautioned about letting these conservative views bias their dealings with clients. The most glaring example I found of "bias" was in simply not questioning liberal points of view and not cautioning about letting these liberal views bias dealings with clients . . . . I found an attitude that the question of "right or wrong" was simply not one to ask . . . . Trainees tend to treat the whole question of right or wrong as ridiculous, childish, backward or irrelevant.

> I replied that drug abuse, or at least certain varieties of it, could hardly be called a 'victimless crime.' It has collateral effects on everyone with whom the user is associated. I also maintained that right and wrong exist, and this was one case where I felt qualified to pass judgment. "Suicide," I said, "is a basically irrational act, but even if you disagree with that, consider that is is an utterly irrevocable decision, and someone who is upset--or spaced out on some drug--is hardly qualified to make such a decision." I went on to say that if the caller appears not to be thinking rationally and I am, it is my duty to provide a rational framework for his thoughts. Since it is my own brand of rationality, it will necessarily be biased, but it certainly is better than no guiding reason at all. There was no applause. Larry's response to my remarks was to shake his head and sink back into the chair.

We might also suggest that something less than neutrality is suggested by the use of euphemisms. Again, from the junior author's notes:

> I may at least have the chance (in the course of empathy) to get them (phone-ins) thinking of alternatives. Then even if the girl subsequently has an abortion, the event will have acquired some meaning in her life. It is the casualness with which abortion is undertaken that disturbs me most: something of our human character goes down the toilet with every sucked-out fetus. I find the very term "problem pregnancy" offensive in that context. The same people who bristle at the label "illegitimate child" semantically assassinate the unborn as "fetus," "problem pregnancy" and even, in a diagram of the abortion process used in training, as "material."

The staff at the Center are adamant about neutrality but in the course of a lecture on referrals to other organizations the trainees were instructed never to give out the number of Birthright "unless the call insists on it," because they are anti-abortion.

Our conclusion is that the empathy process, rather than being based on a neutrality attitude, is in fact based upon a positively stated, if not sophisticatedly articulated set of beliefs and attitudes consistent with the liberal-radicalism of the New Left, counter-culture and student movements of the 1960's.[3] We suggest that the neutrality attitude is an illusion. In a Weberian sense, to be neutral is to take a position; non-action is intentional. We mean more than this, however. The volunteer attitude has to indicate something other than non-action, since volunteers are trained to respond in definite ways. One respondent indicated, for example, that she was given, "a definite sense of the right and the wrong way to respond" to a given situation.

The neutrality attitude is, however, a necessary illusion. In order that empathy may be achieved, it is necessary that the phone-in (i.e., the person with a problem) be assured that he or she will be accorded respect; that their problem will not be labeled and 'treated' by an impersonal agency more concerned with people-processing and event-reporting than with dealing with problems. It is apparently helpful if the trainee (and later volunteer counselor) also believes in the existence of a neutrality attitude, as it will likely then be easier to present himself favorably to the phone-in. It is also necessary in that there is a practical need to routinize what is, for clients, decidedly non-routine. To make the problem routine is to make it accountable by and for volunteers, therefore practically accomplishable by them.

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[3] A discussion of this "ideology" is not within the focus of this paper. The interested reader may refer to any of the flood of books and articles appearing in the past several years dealing with this phenomena.

The neutrality attitude is structurally maintained by the development of routinized ways of dealing with phone-ins. We see empathy, then as a constructed relationship based on the neutrality attitude. There are undoubtedly many ways of constructing empathy; we suspect that most of them depend upon the prior or concomitant construction of an intimate relationship. The problem here, as implied earlier, is that the empathy relationship is not only based on an illusion, but must be constructed between strangers. The result, we argue, is reliance upon an evolved and rationally articulated procedure.

THE CONSTRUCTION OF EMPATHY

> The opening paragraph of the Center's training manual informs us that: Empathy is defined as the ability to identify with another's feelings and/or ideas. In other words, understanding the world as perceived by another. This ability is developed as an interpersonal communication skill involving listening, understanding, accepting, and communicating back that understanding and acceptance. It can be further developed through understanding basic concepts of communication and practicing techniques involved in communication. The attempt to understand others also requires something very basic; that is a desire to understand, or in a word, caring.

Although empathy is here defined in terms of both ideas and feelings, that is, in fact, the last we hear of ideas. From this point on in the manual emphasis is on understanding feelings. In fact, in the following one-and-one-half pages of discussion of the meaning of empathy, the word "idea" does not recur, whereas the word "feeling" or its equivalent appears twelve times. On the same page as the above definition is a contrast of sympathy and empathy indicating the stated focus of those activities taken-to-be constructive of empathy as "feeling with an individual" rather than "feeling for an individual."

In a later discussion of "owning up to" feelings, we are told that there are three levels of client response--ozone, head, and gut. In this discussion we get a clearer idea of the relationship of ideas and feelings. We are told:

> Ozone--the speaker avoids identifying or admitting to his feelings . . . Head--the speaker can usually identify his feelings and their source, but tends to express them in an intellectualized or rationalized manner.

Feelings, on the other hand, get expressed "in a genuine way" in a gut response.

The entire discussion of aiding procedures in the training manual has one important implication and that is that while people have feelings, organizations (especially the Center) act rationally. This applies not only to clients (who may, indeed, be acting non-rationally) but also to volunteers, who must be trained to act rationally. Furthermore, although skill at empathy is defined in terms of "listening, understanding, accepting and communicating back," the training emphasis is on such techniques as "reflecting," i.e., rephrasing and reciting back what the client is saying (specifically to be used when the volunteer does not understand or when a different response would appear risky). The Center is primarily concerned with keeping crisis cases on the telephone long enough to give them some kind of help and only secondarily concerned with whether or not the telephone volunteers "understand" the "feelings" of the caller.

A Center hand-out described the goal of training in these terms:

> This training is designed to help you learn to LISTEN to another person's FEELINGS: to UNDERSTAND what you hear him saying and to COMMUNICATE this understanding. In other words this training emphasizes understanding people, not issues. The attempt to understand others seems to require something very basic; that is, a desire to understand--or, in a word, CARING. We assume that you, as a volunteer, do care about others.

Training was concerned with constructing techniques of caring. In the course of training volunteers were encouraged to provide "feedback" to each other and the instructors. Trainees were encouraged to analyze the "levels of awareness" with which they expressed feelings to each other in training sessions. These "levels of awareness" were classified as 1, 2, or 3--"ozone," "head," or "gut," as experienced volunteers had come to lable them. These three categories of "reality level" deal with how closely in touch the speaker is with his own feelings, "ozone" being the most rationalized and intellectually distant level (i.e., the least aware).

Trainees also heard tapes of re-enacted phone-in problems and classified each speaker's contact with reality (in expressing his problem) in one of those three categories. In the particular training group (of eight) studied, there was generally consensus on the reality level displayed by the caller. One trainee, however, dissented on a number of occasions. When called upon by the instructors to explain his disagreement he responded in what is described by the junior author (and observer) as a confused and disconnected way before every time retracting his opinion. The trainees got gradually "better" at classifying the caller's reality level. Trainees were told that their primary goal in handling phone-in cases should be to put the caller in touch with his own true feelings, "buried as they may be in a slag heap of extraneous emotions and rationalizations."

Volunteers act in terms of a routinized duty schedule. Their activity occurs in a telephone room containing reference books on drugs, sexuality and first aid, along with social service and community directories. A row of loose-leaf folders contains information pertaining to many different types of calls. The Center emphasized documentary accountability. The production of empathy is not only prescribed in explicitly written form, but the telephone volunteer, who has been trained by some of the organization's main members in terms of these prescriptions, is required to offer documentary evidence of having so acted. He is required to mark forms in ways taken to be appropriate not only to the client-stated problem, but to the organization's typical accounting of the problem and prescriptions for dealing with the client presenting the problem.

Every in-coming call must be written up in the "call-in book" which has specific forms for different categories of problems. Among the forms for the volunteer to fill out are a call-in form, a Speaker's Bureau Information Sheet, an Unwanted Pregnancy Counseling Referral, a Silent and/or Prank Call Insert, and a Problem Pregnancy Referral Insert. Much of this bureaucratic paraphernalia, as well as the basic staff-volunteer structure of the Center, is a result of, first, the Center having to deal with many other organizations on a referral basis, and second, being held accountable for its activities by the agencies that provide funding. Of concern at this point is the specifically rationalized procedure for dealing with problems.

The telephone volunteers are provided a guide for action. Part of it follows, as an example of procedure.

A. Procedure for Problem Pregnancy Referral.
   1. Deal with Feelings. Use EMPATHY!!!
   2. IF CONFIRMED--refer to Problem Pregnancy Counselor
      a. Take the person's first name, phone number, and time when they can best be reached. Also tell the caller a problem pregnancy counselor will contact them as soon as possible.
      b. Alternative Procedure: if the person cannot be reached by phone (or other problems), give the caller the first name, phone number, and times counselor can be reached for two Problem Pregnancy Counselors (listed in back of the Problem Pregnancy Book).
   3. IF UNCONFIRMED
      a. Deal with feelings.
      b. Explain WHY a pregnancy should be confirmed before they see a counselor. (Problem Pregnancy Counselors prefer to deal only with confirmed pregancies.)
      c. Make the necessary referral for pregnancy confirmation as outlined under the section "Pregnancy" in Referral Book.

The first step in this guide, telling the volunteer to use empathy, is, in fact, dealt with at great length in training.

In using empathy, the volunteer is told to determine the phone-in's level of awareness (1, 2, or 3, as discussed earlier). The volunteer is then provided three kinds of replies--detracting, reflecting, and adding. In detracting, the listener denies the caller's stated feelings, or at least their validity. The significance of a troublesome situation is underplayed. For example, when someone tells you he had a bad day, a detracting response would be, "Your day was nothing. Wait till I tell you about mine."

In reflecting, the listener attempts to establish rapport with the speaker by periodically rephrasing what the caller has said without offering any new insight into the problem. This is supposed to provide reinforcement to the caller. An example:

> I've had it. That's it for me. Everytime I try to get close to someone I get burned.
>
> So every time you open yourself to a deep relationship you find yourself used or rejected?

This technique is remarkably easy, requires no insight, and is especially useful when you can't think of anything else to say.

Adding involves probing the feelings of the speaker by intuitively adding feelings or attitudes he might be having. Often he will say, "No, that's not it at all," and then go on to explain his true feelings; in either case, you have successfully clarified that aspect of his problem. It is at the adding level, volunteers are told, that all progress is made. Detracting replies are to avoided at all cost, while reflecting responses are used to "pace" the conversation between attempts to "add" toward a real understanding of the problem. Volunteers are also provided a list of "Thirty Clarifying Responses," including such items as:

> Is that something that you prize?
> Are you glad about that?
> What do you mean by ___________?
> Are you saying that ____________?
> What other possibilities are there?

These "clarifying responses" are meant to aid the volunteer in constructing an empathic relationship.

That empathy is organizationally constructed seems clear to the volunteers themselves. This is evidenced when they use "reflecting" responses on each other, either in jest or in response to a stated problem. The first communicator's response is invariably of the "Come off it!" variety, indicative of an understanding that empathy is not to be constructed this way on a personal level. The techniques of empathy construction are meaningful only in the context of organizational action and empathy is given an organizational rather than a personal meaning.[4]

CONCLUSION

According to Kitsuse and Cicourel (1963:135), "deviant behavior is behavior which is organizationally defined, processed and treated as 'strange,' 'abnormal,' 'theft,' 'delinquent,' etc., by the personnel in the social system which has produced the rate." In the case of the crisis management center what is dealt with is behavior that others are likely to define, etc., as deviant. The problem faced by the Center is to organizationally define, process and treat as normal (routine) that which may be treated as abnormal by everyone else, including the client. The primary manner in which such behavior comes to be treated as "normal" lies in emphasizing neutrality and constructing empathy; this is practically accomplished by a set of training and duty procedures designed to produce organizationally competent volunteer counselors.

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[4] Volunteers use the techniques in which they were trained. While empathy may be, in the words of one respondant, the "scariest part of training," volunteers rely upon it, especially in the first anxious sessions of telephone watch. Our respondants indicate, and the junior author's experience bears out, the fact that clients seldom, if ever, notice the patterned responses of the telephone volunteer.

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STUDENT VOLUNTEERS IN A PSYCHIATRIC HALFWAY HOUSE

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The decision to return many patients from state mental hospitals to the community is presently an established policy. Coinciding with this trend is the creation of community programs which keep individuals from being hospitalized. These developments affect treatment philosophy so that we now have a redirection of services from those provided in large, isolated institutions to more comprehensive community services, such as residential facilities. The immediate need for structured living facilities available on a short-term or transitional basis in the community is very apparent.

As the concept of the transitional living facility (more commonly known as a "halfway house") emerges, a great deal of time and effort is being spent on them. Much energy is exerted at the community level to develop the supportive atmosphere that a structured living environment requires if psychiatric patients are to eventually achieve independent status in the community. However, available funds are not keeping up with the number of individuals in need of the cooperative group living experience. In addition, numerous hours must be spent to coordinate basic activities, seek necessary community contacts, and battle the stigma of "former mental patient" that is very often attached to the residents of such a facility.

How can the funding and staffing limitations be overcome? How can information about the programs be dispersed to more citizens? Part of the answer to these questions lies in the use of volunteers. This paper focuses on the utilization of volunteers in a single psychiatric halfway house, with emphasis on undergraduate and graduate students as valuable candidates for these positions. Not only do volunteer positions benefit the student and the psychiatric halfway house, but they present a vital bond between academia and the community. It must be noted that halfway houses for the mentally retarded, foster children, juvenile delinquents, adult offenders, and the physically handicapped all share one ingredient. Each have the potential for volunteer aid to provide more effective and efficient services to all involved.

As the author is employed as a caseworker in a psychiatric halfway house, Group Home, Inc., (located in Washington, Pennsylvania) many specific real-life experiences will be provided in the following. Also, other potential volunteer contributions to transitional programs will be noted, along with where to find student volunteers, the motivational factors that attract them, and some of the characteristics that they must possess to be qualified for the position. The author will also touch on the subject of student evaluations, and some of the problems that must be considered when dealing with student volunteers. Before the discussion of these topics, we must first look at the administration of the home, the independent living skills taught to the residents (both inside and out of the home), and program limitations.

ADMINISTRATION OF THE HOME

The overall responsibility of halfway house operation lies in the hands of the Board of Directors, who are a group of volunteers. These non-paid citizens, many of whom are professionals in such areas as mental health, real estate, banking, and other occupations, first must explore operational procedures and staffing models that will be incorporated into the program. The board must then proceed to locate a facility, renovate it if necessary, solicit and hire a staff, and assume responsibility for the administration of the home and its programs, including supervision of staff. Quite naturally, however, many board members have other commitments and are consequently restricted to the amount of time that they can invest in the project. In many cases, the board limits itself to legal assistance, fiscal management, broad supervision, and developing community acceptance of the agency and the residents of the home.

"IN-HOUSE" ACTIVITIES

Once a program begins to welcome residents, the staff assumes most of the responsibility of the day-to-day operations of the home and its activities. Within the home, residents share in the tasks of cooking, menu planning, shopping, cleaning, and general upkeep of the physical structure. For some residents, this is a learning experience; for others, it may only be a review of such tasks. In any event, staff time must be devoted to making sure that the residents have the self-care and home-management skills that are needed for them to live as independent citizens. The program is geared to instruct the individual resident in the following basic areas:

1. preparation of a meal, including planning the meal (including proper nutrition), shopping for the groceries, preparing the meal, serving and cleaning up afterwards;
2. all facets of cleaning one's living quarters;
3. personal hygiene - daily baths, shaves, use of deodorant, appropriate make-up;
4. developing an adequate wardrobe, dressing properly, cleaning, laundering, and mending clothes, and storing of clothes;
5. etiquette - table manners, introductions, how to initiate conversations;
6. handling money and budgeting for rent, food, necessities, savings, and "spend" money;
7. basic reading skills;
8. self-identification, such as birth dates, address, phone number, and social security number;

9. keeping appointments, using the telephone, and using an alarm clock; and,

10. *being capable* of using public transportation and knowing proper pedestrian safety.

The goals of the program acknowledge the importance of normal life experiences in developing life styles compatible with the social milieu in which an individual must function. Daily routines (eating, going to work, use of leisure time) and annual events (birthdays and holidays) are accorded the significance that each plays in the normal course of living. Opportunities to make decisions are a pre-requisite skill for independent living and the attainment of this skill is encouraged, developed, and refined through programs and activities both within and outside the group home environment. Given the short-term nature of a halfway house program, the process is very concentrated and consumes many staff hours.

"OUT OF HOUSE" ACTIVITIES

Certainly, the "in-house" activities listed above do not fulfill all of the residents' needs. Employment opportunities, volunteer experiences, resocialization programs, training, formal education, and religious, cultural, and recreational activities may be critically important for an individual to develop the structured activity skills necessary to live on his or her own. To assure that these needs are met, staff time must be spent pursuing job leads, seeking potential programs and classes that residents might enroll in, and becoming acquainted with the services that the community has to offer the group home residents. Most staff members themselves have a chance to learn some "skills" and become more educated about their community, especially since many of them are young and inexperienced, mainly due to low salaries and emotionally draining working conditions.

Once a resident has achieved the level of competency necessary to live independently, he must find a place to go: an apartment (by himself or shared with others), back with his family or friends, or in another group facility (such as a "boarding home"). Whatever he may choose, much time and effort must be devoted to assuring an easy transition. Taking care of various practical arrangements, finding furniture, meeting with landlords, or instructing the "graduate" about a new bus system are the responsibilities of the staff. Staff time must definitely be given to the client once he or she has left the program; to provide continuity of care is essential in aiding these individuals to become more confident on their own.

PROGRAM LIMITATIONS

Staff time must be spent on "in-house" activities, structured activities outside the home, and aiding clients in their transitions to future plans. They must also develop listening skills to assess the various needs of the clients and spend much time talking to the residents and discovering their needs. In addition, staff members are expected to solicit materials and furniture for the home, complete required paperwork, write proposals for new projects, seek new referrals and review their applications, and communicate with each other, with their board, and with other social service agencies. Needless to say, staff members have a lot to do. Since staff sizes are usually small and budgets are often very tight, an extension of any services must be done at little or no cost. This is where volunteers can be of vital assistance to a psychiatric halfway house and the residents who pass through its doors.

USE OF VOLUNTEERS

Additional personnel to supplement limited staff time is available through citizens interested in improving services to the resident population on a voluntary basis. These volunteers can be a tremendous asset to a halfway house in many ways. Due to the fact that staff time is often of a formal-learning nature, volunteers can share "people time" together, which allows the resident to be social and recreational in an informal way. Such relationships can develop and, in fact, are encouraged. Also, volunteers can share some of their professional talents, such as allowing a resident to serve as an apprentice, eventually learning a job skill. In either case, volunteers enable the residents to acquire a number of skills that they will need in the future. This can be done in a very low-pressure manner.

Volunteers can be very diversified with regards to age, sex, race, occupation, volunteer experience, and educational background. They also have a wide range of emotional makeups and possess different strengths and weaknesses. Volunteers can serve a whole gamut of purposes, either weekly, monthly, or whenever they get a chance, depending on what is being done. The following outlines some possibilities for a volunteer to share a part of himself with the residents of a short-term psychiatric facility. This may be done on a one-on-one basis, in group activities, by obtaining material goods for the program or giving technical advise.

Halfway house programs often attempt to cultivate a more permanent one-to-one relationship between a volunteer and a resident. This "person-to-person" arrangement allows for easier transitions both within the home and once a resident "graduates". This project is of immeasurable human value in making a person feel welcome in the community. The volunteer provides the time, care, and love imperative for an individual to develop the confidence he will need in himself if his transition is to be successful. Since staff energies are doing basically the same things (although on a more formal level), it should have an even greater effect.

Even on a less permanent one-to-one basis, volunteers, with their own talents and abilities, can add to the spectrum of experiences of the client. Most residents have this as an essential need - to experience many life situations that they have missed or have not fulfilled up to that point. The opportunities are endless in terms of volunteers improving the program and helping the residents to realize their maximum potential. Although most programs attempt to get their clients involved in community activities (taking them to activities and not always bringing activities to them), someone must point out such programs and possibly accompany the residents to them. Volunteers enable the staff to get residents to become involved in these programs without the staff spending the tremendous number of hours of accompanying the clients to and from such activities. Volunteers may also be able to work on special needs with clients and reinforce specific goals set up by a trained rehabilitation counselor.

Volunteers can focus the individual client on the simplest of tasks and support them while they are concentrating on it. A female volunteer assisting a male resident to plan and plant a garden encourages better male-female relationships and teaches him the logistics of a planned project - not to mention the exercise and money saved by harvesting the crops. A volunteer can help a resident to coordinate a wardrobe by discovering low-cost thrift shops and assisting the client to make proper purchases and, more importantly, he or she instructs the individual about the procedure involved in such an endeavor. Volunteers can spend time with a resident, going to restaurants and movies, so that the individual can experience some of the things that most of us take for granted. Or they can just play checkers, bake cookies, or go for a walk, where the volunteer and resident can share time together. Showing interest in a client enables the individual to not only develop interpersonal communication skills, but may also enable the client to have "peace of mind" and put him in the proper mental framework to blossom towards self-actualization. Needless to say, staff members help in similar situations but have time restrictions as to the number of needs that they can work on.

Volunteers can hold group activities with the residents, whether it is an outdoor picnic, how to knit, or going to a concert. A volunteer or group of volunteers may provide entertainment, either for one night or on a regular basis. On the other hand, the group activity may be more along the lines of group therapy. Whether it is in an informal or formal way, participating in a group and developing communication and decision-making skills are vital to the resident's development.

Thirdly, volunteers can aid the program by assisting with material needs or technical advice. They have helped on many occasions to renovate the building used as the transitional living facility and have assisted clients in repairing and painting newly acquired apartments. The volunteer may be able to solicit monies for a particular aspect of the program or do some art work for the home. They can even set up a resource file on landlords, churches, or available medical services. Volunteers can share their artistic abilities with a staff member who is making a brochure to distribute about the program. They can aid a staff member in developing learning pamphlets about personal hygiene for the residents. Volunteers can also solicit materials for a "welcome packet" so that each incoming resident is given a package containing an ample supply of items necessary to learn self-care skills, including a date book, calendar, bus schedule, and sample sizes of "toilet" items (shampoo, toothpaste, etc.).

One of the most beneficial aspects of using volunteers is that more and more members of the community become aware of the needs and assets of the program and of the individuals who participate in the same. Growth and development of both client and program depends, at least in part, on the acceptance and support of the established centers of the community. The psychiatric halfway house and its clientele should be an integral part of the community rather than separated from it.

FINDING STUDENT VOLUNTEERS

Without a doubt, volunteers allow for a greater variety of experiences for the residents of halfway houses that they would not have otherwise. Their influence is positive and if used wisely, an hour of staff time with a volunteer should have a multiplier effect and result in many hours of volunteer time. Volunteers can more than sufficiently make up for deficiencies in the program caused by personnel and budgetary limitations.

But where do we find these volunteers? In the past, we have sought out the members of church groups, mental health associations, or we have recruited volunteers by word of mouth. Recently, however, we have come to recognize the large pool of candidates that exists in colleges and universities across the nation. Both graduate and undergraduate students can provide the necessary manpower to allow for the expansion of services available to those in halfway houses. These student volunteers can come as individuals, as part of a class, or as members of a fraternity or club. They may serve for a day, for a semester or for a year on a part-time basis or for a specific project. A full-time intern position for a fixed period of time is also possible.

Many colleges and universities have volunteer directors or deans who handle volunteer projects. If not, the Student Government, fraternities, clubs or individual professors can be contacted.

MOTIVATIONAL FACTORS FOR VOLUNTEERING

The above discussion describes how volunteers can enhance a program, but why do they want to donate their time? Following are some of the reasons. The experience:

1. can be invaluable to his/her own personal development;
2. may be an exploration of a future career;
3. may be used as a stepping stone to a job, graduate school, or future career possibilities;
4. exposes an individual to the community surrounding the college environment;
5. relates practical experiences to the theories one is learning in the classroom;
6. is a means of creating some sense of worth in oneself;
7. allows them to have an alternative way to obtain college credit other than traditional lecture-type classes; and,
8. is a way to improve interpersonal skills.

In an age when an individual must be well-equipped with professional and personal skills at an early age, volunteerism may be the only method of obtaining these skills during one's academic experience. The participant receives actual practice (and hopefully training) in order to develop his/her competency in these skills. The result is twofold: the immediate program reaps the benefits from their concern and the social service agencies, in general, have another candidate who is a little better equipped to handle his job duties in future positions.

CHARACTERISTICS OF STUDENT VOLUNTEERS

What kind of students are we looking for and what are some of the things that we should be careful about? We are searching for students who are flexible, who honestly want to spend their time in a halfway house program, and who want a challenge. Their serious involvement can help the residents immensely. Transitional living settings are ideal for students since, in most cases, their volunteer commitments can only be made for short durations of time. There is very little conflict when they leave for breaks or vacations as their contributions fit in very well because the residents are at the home for less than a year. Serving for a short period of time still allows a volunteer to share his or her abilities without disrupting the smooth functioning of the program.

Like any volunteer situation, we must be careful to be specific with the responsibilities of the volunteer. Specific tasks and specific schedules are a must; a formal commitment is mandatory. Students tend to be idealistic and appreciate challenges. We must provide them with just that; trying something new and exciting permits them to use their maximum energies. Subsequently, the new ideas that they may be able to suggest should be assessed on their merit and not on the basis of who initiates them.

The amount of training necessary depends on the individual and his or her volunteer project. In many cases, a detailed explanation of the program may be sufficient since a volunteer is sharing his own abilities and experiences with the resident and performs a very specific function. Being "human", having patience, and using common sense could very well be the most desired personality characteristics in a student volunteer.

POTENTIAL PROBLEMS

The idea of student volunteers in a halfway house has worked and will continue to do so with the proper supervision and feedback. Volunteers must definitely communicate to the staff as to the status of their tasks. Integrating volunteer activities into the overall program is an extremely important element of a smooth-running agency. However, just because a student wants to volunteer his or her time does not automatically indicate a positive contribution to the program. A field placement is not a classroom situation and we should be aware of the differences. The experience is real and should not be treated as an "academic exercise." Evaluations are important and must be shared directly with the students.

If a volunteer fails to handle his duties in a responsible manner, the student should be told immediately. If no remedy is found and the neglect persists, the volunteer's services should be terminated. Also, a volunteer may indicate that he or she may be taking on an overwhelming task, may not be taking on as many responsibilities as he or she can handle, or may use his or her abilities in a more positive manner. As mentioned earlier, student volunteers must be flexible, and the staff members responsible for supervising these volunteers must be capable of recognizing problem areas and developing solutions quickly. On the other hand, letters of recommendation, news articles, or inviting the volunteers to dinner could give them the well-deserved recognition that they have earned.

CONCLUSIONS

Programs that serve individuals who need temporary, structured facilities because of mental illness are quite complex. Although the needs of the clients are usually great, the transitional nature of the program and limitations of staff time and budget often curtail a number of activities that could aid the residents to become more independent in the community. One means of supplementing present services, however, is the use of volunteers in the halfway house setting. As indicated, volunteers can serve for a variety of reasons and perform a wide range of functions. Presently, we have a tremendous number of easily accessible individuals who are attending institutions of higher learning who could aid in developing more comprehensive services to residents of transitional living facilities. It is now time that we use their potential energies to overcome limitations that exist in psychiatric halfway houses. Field involvement has been excluded from colleges and universities long enough. It is imperative that today's youth develop social responsibility which includes experiences in social action. In this manner, we will not only be able to provide the best possible services to the individuals who inhabit transitional living facilities, but students may gain the personal and professional skills vital to their own development.

THE WOMAN VOLUNTEER WORKER: A SURVEY*

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PURPOSE

With the advance of Women's Liberation organized groups are extending challenges to women which have the potential of changing the nature of volunteer activities. On the one hand women are being challenged by some groups to withdraw from the area of volunteer work. On the other hand challenges are being made to increase volunteer contributions, to professionalize, and to develop a position of advocacy toward the organizations within which they work. If women accept any of these challenges in large numbers we must anticipate the effect these changes will have upon the organizations and community activities that depend on voluntary support for their effective operation and continuance. At the present time, however, the nature and extent of the voluntary contributions of women are only vaguely understood and documented. This exploratory study was an attempt to bring into clearer focus four areas of concern. Data were collected on 1) the background characteristics of the volunteers, 2) the nature and extent of volunteer participation, 3) the attitudes of the volunteers toward their participation and 4) attitudes of the volunteers toward six currently debated proposals for policy change within volunteerism.

METHODOLOGY

The data were collected through a ten-page questionnaire mailed to 900 women volunteers in January of 1975. A random one-third sample (every third name) was drawn from the mailing list of sixteen community service organizations which were based in or operating in Ithaca, New York (county population - 80,000 including 20,000 college students). The organizations sampled were selected from a survey made by the author of over 70 human service agencies and were chosen to include a diversity of volunteer experiences. The organizations included the Ithaca School System, YMCA, Boy Scout Council, 4-H, Economic Opportunities Corporation, Hospital Auxiliary, Red Cross, Planned Parenthood, Mental Health Association, Suicide Prevention and Crisis Counseling, Alternative (solutions in unwanted pregnancies), FISH, United Way, League of Women Voters, Friends of the Library and Historic Ithaca. A pre-survey showed that 4,609 women over 23 years of age were listed as volunteers with 55 of the surveyed agencies. Women in this age group represented 58 percent of the volunteers listed with these agencies. The survey deals with the activities of women in this age category.

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After an initial version of the questionnaire was developed, a written pre-test was administered to twenty women from different age groups, backgrounds and types of involvements to insure that the items were being interpreted consistently. A pre-letter explaining the purpose of the questionnaire was sent a week before the questionnaire and a follow-up letter was mailed two weeks after. The questionnaires were returned anonymously. They were answered with obvious thought as many comments were written into the questionnaire and over half of the women continued writing ideas on the page included for comments. The response rate was 66 percent. The collated results represent 513 respondents. Sixty-four questionnaires were returned blank because of non-active status.

CHARACTERISTICS

This section will address the question: What are the social characteristics of the women who are making contributions within community organizations and how do background characteristics and situations influence the voluntary participation of women?

Researchers (Teddy and Smith, 1973; Babchuk and Booth, 1969; Wright and Hyman, 1958; Hausknecht, 1962) and respondents suggest that the nature of volunteer activities changes with the life cycle. The following comments made by respondents allude to this idea. "I find that changes in my family directly concern the type of volunteer work I do." "You caught me four years too late. I was once a very active volunteer. I think this is a developmental stage in life. I have moved to another stage and I now do very little and only what I really enjoy." Married women with children have been found to be the core of the volunteer labor force. Youth groups and school activities draw parents into leadership and participative roles. The data in Table 1A strongly support these ideas. Seventy-nine percent of the women were married and 85 percent had one or more children.

Perhaps the most consistently documented correlate of volunteer participation is socioeconomic status (Babchuk and Booth, 1969; Palisi, 1968; Hyman and Wright, 1971). Higher education and income levels and professional occupations have all been related to higher rates of voluntary participation. Hagedorn and Labovitz (1968) explain this relationship by suggesting that a major value instilled by the education process is the desirability of community participation. The more education a person receives the more he is socialized to accept this norm. Education instills not only the norm but the leadership and interpersonal skills necessary for participation. Another explanation for the difference in participation is the money necessary for participation in organizations. Dues, transportation expenses, and contributions of refreshments will be a minimal sacrifice to a woman of middle or upper income but could prove prohibitive to lower income women. Lower income women also will more likely be required to hold full-time jobs thus cutting down on the time available for voluntary association. Examining the data in Table 1B we see that 78 percent of the volunteers had family income of over $10,000.* Eighty percent of the volunteers had at least some college and 53 percent had a bachelor's degree or more. Sixty-two percent of the women were wives of professional men.

What roles do voluntary associations play in the leadership development and the leadership base of the community? To what extent do women perceive themselves in leadership roles and seek leadership roles? Many women felt a need to list and document the many leadership positions which they had held in their volunteer experiences. These women defined themselves as directors, presidents, coordinators, organizers, leaders and developers of social activities, neighborhood meetings, PTA's, youth activities, Garden Clubs, Senior Citizens, church programs and civic action groups. One woman wrote, "Vital work is done by volunteers. Some women refuse to take a job which pays well but is restrictive, preferring to work almost full time at a job for which they are not paid. A lot of jobs can't be 'bought' and a lot of people will work hard to do what they feel needs doing." In Table 1C the data show that 76 percent of the volunteers perceived themselves to have been at least slightly involved in leadership roles during their school years and one in four perceived themselves as having been highly involved. In the two risk-taking items** concerned with authority and change it is seen that there is over a 20 percent advantage in the number of women who preferred the riskier position. In our society volunteer jobs have been to a large extent the only opportunity for women to hold and develop leadership roles. Society perpetuates the concept that women are low achievers and have low needs for achievement. This concept fosters the belief that the accomplishments and activities of women are not actual achievements but rather pseudo-achievements which are of superficial importance to the community. The low rates of achievement identified with women are perhaps more a consequence of the definitions of society as to what constitutes an achievement than of the actual achievements of women or the achievement needs of women.

The data in Table 1D show that 37 percent of the volunteers were presently employed for pay. An additional nine percent were seeking a paying job. The experiences gained through volunteer participation in an organization sometimes lead to a paying job. A person who has proven herself to be responsible as a volunteer may be more readily considered for a job if an opening becomes available in the organization. The volunteer experiences can also help a women decide what kinds of work and what kinds of organizations are most compatible with her interests and abilities.

Table 1E shows that 84 percent of the volunteers identified with a religious affiliation. Comments by respondents suggest that there is a relationship between the intrinsic and spiritual motivations instilled by religion and the propensity to become involved in volunteer work. One woman commented, "I like working with people and feel a satisfaction in using my time in the service of others." Another said, "I feel there will always be a need for volunteer services as long as people love and care for others. My husband and I volunteer our services together. We do it freely and with a love of God and our fellow man." In political affiliation it is seen that the largest percentage of respondents identified themselves as republican.

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* The median family income of families in Tompkins County in 1969 was $10,247.

** These items were adapted from a risk-taking scale developed by Lawrence K. Williams (1962, unpublished).

"Table 1 about here"

ORGANIZATIONAL PARTICIPATION

The variety of organizations using volunteers and developed by them is immense. All the areas and interests of human experience are represented by voluntary associations whether they be social, religious or political. The vast plurality of our society has been developed and protected by these groups. Voluntary organizations have been classified by functions or services performed (Babchuk and Booth, 1969; Smith, 1972; Hausknecht, 1962; Anderson and Moore, 1974). Researchers use different categories to reflect differences in their particular samples. In the present research the 513 respondents cited 1,379 organizational affiliations. These organizations were differentiated into the following categories:

1. School-related groups such as tutors, PTA, School Boards
2. Youth Service groups such as 4-H, Boy Scouts, Campfire Girls
3. Social and Hobby groups such as Garden club, Senior Citizens
4. Church-related groups such as women societies, choirs, church board
5. Health and Welfare groups such as hospital auxiliaries, crisis centers
6. Political groups such as League of Women Voters, political parties
7. Professional groups such as University Women, unions
8. Educational groups such as library assistance, historical societies
9. Undetermined category (unable to determine function from initials or name)

Table 2A shows that the largest involvement was in the area of welfare (31 percent) and 30 percent were related to youth through the schools and youth services. Ninety percent of the affiliations were associated with the traditionally feminine responsibilities of children, church, social and welfare organizations.

There is ambiguity in the research on rates of voluntary affiliations, (Hyman and Wright, 1971; Babchuk and Booth, 1969). Some studies have used interviews where researchers prompted recall by presenting a list of organizational types asking the respondent to indicate which of these types of organizations he was affiliated with. Others have consisted of open-ended questions. In the present study prompted recall was not used. Three identical pages were included to collect detailed information on up to three voluntary affiliations and the respondent was then asked to list other organizations briefly. Each respondent defined her own volunteer involvement. The data show that the mean rate of organizational affiliation was 2.7. This represents perhaps a conservative estimate of actual involvement since several respondents returned the questionnaire with a statement to the effect, "I have not done volunteer work this year, as I have been busy with church and social groups." The inclusion of a list might have remedied this ambiguity. One out of four respondents was affiliated with four or more organizations.

Volunteer work involves people in many different types of activities and provides many opportunities for both the use and the development of skills and abilities. Respondents wrote comments which bring out the issues involved. "I work with the Crisis center to 'keep up' my counseling skills". "It's as close as I can get to what I love to do -- teach." "I much prefer the type of work I do as a volunteer to my secretarial position." "Volunteer work is valuable as a broadening agent for ones abilities." "I have learned things I could never have learned at school." The data in Table 2B show that the skills checked fell evenly into three categories. In the questionnaire the statement was made, 'Briefly describe the volunteer work you do'. Twenty-one skills were then listed. Administrative and policy-making skills include such categories as president, director, other officer, supervisory skills, program planning, advisory, board of directors and research. Clerical and organizational support skills include the categories of secretarial skills, financial accounting, telephoning, publicity, sales, reception and recruitment. Direct service and expressive skills include teaching, counseling, chauffeuring, recreation, nursing, artistic work, and food preparation.

What is the extent of the time contributions being made to community organizations and on what basis is this time being contributed? Is it regular or sporadic? How much would it cost to replace these contributions? The data in Table 2C illuminates the total number of hours given to all the affiliations listed. After converting the contributions being made on a daily, monthly and occasional basis to hours per week it is seen that the largest amount of time represents a regular, weekly participation. It would require 80 full-time workers to replace the work of these 513 women. If they were hired at a salary of $8,000 a year it would require an expenditure of $640,000 per year to replace their services. This salary level was chosen arbitrarily by the author. After consideration of the educational achievements of the women and the leadership and professional skills being used it was felt that the minimum wage would be inappropriate and misleading. When we consider that these women represent a sample of a population of 4,609 women who are listed with community organizations we begin to realize the immensity of the volunteer contributions being made to our society by women.

"Table 2 about here"

ATTITUDES TOWARDS JOB SATISFACTION

In light of the present challenges being extended to women to alter the nature and extent of their volunteer participation a consideration of the attitudes which women hold toward their participation becomes imperative. We can echo the concern of one questionnaire respondent who wrote, "How chaotic and awakening if all women volunteers quit simultaneously." The possibility of all quitting may be remote; however, a change in involvement of even one quarter of this number could prove chaotic. The question now becomes, 'To what extent are women satisfied with their volunteer jobs and the rewards received from performing them?'

How does one measure job satisfaction? Vroom (1964) provides a comprehensive discussion of the research done on the determinants of job satisfaction. He summarizes the factors of job satisfaction into six areas; 1) the extent to which a supervisor considers the needs and opinions of the workers, 2) the nature of the interaction within the work group, 3) the extent to which a worker is able to experience a feeling of success and accomplishment, 4) the perception of fairness of rewards in relation to the effort necessary to perform the job, 5) the opportunity for promotion and 6) the ability to establish working hours that do not interfere with other important areas of life. Reddy and Smith (1973) found general attitude characteristics conducive to participation in voluntary organizations. These include a strong sense of moral or civic obligation, a service orientation toward leisure time, a positive attitude toward the local community, a preference for organized groups as a way of accomplishing goals, positive attitudes toward the efficacy of voluntary associations, low degrees of alienation and powerlessness and the perception that one's friends and family approve of the participation. Closely related to satisfaction is the consideration of stress producing elements within a job. Kornhauser (1965) states that job roles provide important psychological functions for the worker aside from the production of service that is rendered for the organization. The failure of the organization to fulfill these personality needs will lead to a sense of stress. Kahn and co-workers (1964) see stress related to conflict and ambiguity in role relations caused by excessive pressures toward conformity. These social pressures are seen as sources of stress as people seek to establish their individual identities. Palisi (1968) suggests that social forces or pressures operate to maintain participation of people in voluntary groups to a larger extent than is commonly admitted.

In the present research attitudes were assessed toward both specific volunteer jobs and toward volunteer participation in general. On the three identical pages used to gather detailed information on up to three different volunteer participations five attitude items were included. For the 1,020 detailed job reports, 93 percent of the women agreed that 'The work I am doing is important'. Fifty-one percent of this number strongly agreed. Seventy-nine percent agreed that, 'My abilities are being used in this job'. Ninety percent agreed that 'My efforts are appreciated'. Eighty-three percent agreed that 'The supervision is appropriate'. and Seventy-two percent agreed that "I plan to continue what I am doing'.

Thirty-one Likert type attitude items were used to assess feelings toward general volunteer participation. In developing the questionnaire twenty-five interviews were held with women engaged in various types of volunteer work. The women were encouraged to discuss their involvement in and attitudes toward their volunteer work in any way they felt important. The wording of many of the attitude statements was based on conversations held during these interviews. To insure that the questions asked were relevant to the larger empirical studies which have been done in the areas of social relations and work relations the items in the survey have also been suggested by and adapted from previous research done in the areas of job satisfaction and stress. The thirty-one attitude items assessed feelings toward the variables of accomplishment, personal involvement, recognition, personal growth, pay, social interaction, supervision, civic orientation, value orientation, stress and equity.

The data give a consistently strong sense of agreement that the work being done constitutes an important accomplishment. Consistency is demonstrated by the differential agreement to statements that were positively and negatively worded. In response to an open-ended statement, 'List your major satisfaction' it is seen that the predominant sources of satisfaction related to helping others, helping the community and being involved with people. Many women wrote expressions about their feelings of accomplishments in volunteer work.

"I am doing a service well that needs to be done well."

"I get personal satisfaction from teaching children a new level of sensitivity and creativity."

"I saw a group of insecure individuals become in one brief year a happy, communicative friendly group "

"Most of my work has been experimental and politically innovative. Some ideas would not be supported without volunteer help."

About ten percent of the volunteers expressed a deep sense of stress which related to being unpaid and overused. Three comments typlify this stress; 1) You have to learn to say 'no' or you will be worked to death., 2) The volunteer load is increased by women who have taken paying jobs., 3) Volunteers aren't respected as much as paid workers.

The data in Table 3 show responses to a sample of the attitude items. A trend is apparent on most items. The statements about 'prefer to be paid' and 'love of God' show a variance in response. Thirty percent of the women agreed that if possible they would prefer to be paid. The idea of pay in this area represents a break in the ideal of volunteerism. The concept of 'God' motivated 41% of the volunteers while 47% disagreed that this was a motivation. One respondent wrote an 'undecided' response and then changed it to 'strongly agree'. She shared the thought process she went through in changing her response. "If God represents all that is good-harmony, compassion, tolerance, high aspirations, optimism- then this item should be scored '1'.... Faith in a supportive force greater than the human reality has always been a mysterious but certain component of my life." Another woman wrote, "I never thought of it in that way." Another woman was highly offended by the statement and wrote, 'Bah' instead of a response.

"Table 3 about here"

ATTITUDES OF THE VOLUNTEER WOMEN TOWARD POLICY PROPOSALS

Twenty-nine Likert type attitude items were used to assess attitudes toward six currently debated policy orientations. These orientations include withdrawal, advocacy, professional career status, academic credit, support for democracy and public-private interaction. Data in Table 4 show responses to a sample of these policy items.

Some proponents of Women's Liberation, including the National Organization for Women (1971) suggest that women should withdraw their voluntary support of society. They contend that the volunteer system perpetuates the exploitation of women by expecting them to perform supportive human service functions without pay. Data in Table 4 show that 15 percent agreed.

Langley (1972) suggests that the new image for the volunteer is that of the 'volunteer as an advocate'. The concept grows from the concern that societal organizations often develop large bureaucracies which can be insensitive to the real needs of the clients being served. This concept suggests that volunteers be represented in the policy making of organizations. Seventy-four percent of the women agreed.

Democracy encourages voluntary participation in associations. Members of a democracy are encouraged to develop individual and cultural diversity in the support of individual growth and freedom. Schindler-Rainman and Lippitt (1971) contend that voluntarism develops the basic elements of a democratic personality such as self-motivated involvement, participation, openness to others and friendliness. The data show that 88 percent of the volunteers agreed that volunteer work promotes initiative.

An important development in the acquisition of status for the volunteer is the growing interest being shown in the accreditation of off-campus and field study learning experiences. The University Without Walls (1972) recognizes that much knowledge is accumulated outside the traditional academic setting. Thirty-three percent of the respondents agreed that academic credit would have been appropriate.

In considering the changing relationships in social service organizations a key area of discussion is the interaction of the public (governmental) and private (non-governmental) social service agencies. The opinions toward this relationship range from separation in order to maintain unique approaches, to cooperation and coordination, to complete consolidation of public and private agencies. Forty-two percent of the women agreed that separation should continue for unique approaches and 33 percent agreed that consolidation would be more effective. The data in Table 4 show that 61 percent of the women agreed to separation with coordination.

In the wake of the challenges being presented to volunteers Ellen Straus (1972) advocates establishing a new job category entitled 'Volunteer Professional'. This status will depend on winning certain demands such as; written job agreements with agencies, reimbursement for expenses, on-the-job insurance, child-care facilities at work, federal income tax deduction for volunteer hours, inclusion in the social security system, and written evaluation of job performance for future employers. In averaging the agreements of the respondents to these demands, it is seen that approximately 57 percent feel these are appropriate.

"Table 4 about here"

SUMMARY

This survey indicates that a large contribution is being made within community organizations by women. In spite of the large variety of organizations and activities engaged in by volunteers, the respondents were positive and consistent in their agreement that the contributions represented important services. In the accomplishment of maintaining the family unit and the integration of the family unit with societal organizations through volunteer activities, women have highly refined the skills of observation, interaction, awareness, integration, supervision, initiative, organization and evaluation. In the development of a just society we are led to ask, "How best can the values of compassion and integration, which have been the traditional roles accorded to and developed by women, be channeled to challenge our society to a re-establishment of concern for the dignity of each individual?"

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Table 1: CHARACTERISTICS

A. Life Cycle Stage Variables

%	Age
11	23-29
26	30-39
24	40-49
19	50-59
20	60 +

%	Marital Status
79	married
5	divorced/sep.
9	widowed
7	single

%	Number of Children
15	none
14	one
29	two
23	three
10	four
6	five
3	six +

%	Ages of the Children
17	under 6 years
48	6-18 years
46	over 18 years

B. Socio-Economic Status

%	Family Income
6	Under $5,000
16	5 up to 10
21	10 up to 15
18	15 up to 20
16	20 up to 25
23	25 and over

%	Education
2	Some High School
17	High School Grad.
28	Some College
27	Bachelor Degree
10	Some Graduate Work
11	Master's Degree
2	Work Beyond Master's
3	Ph.D.

%	Husband's Occupation
25	Professor
37	Other Professional
8	Manual Worker
2	Service Worker
2	Farmer
3	Student
19	Does Not Apply
3	Retired

C. Perceptions of Leadership and Preferred Involvement

%	Leadership during school
25	highly involved
51	slightly involved
24	uninvolved

%	Preferred Authority in volunteer job
50	I am my own authority
29	someone to catch my mistakes
8	qualified
13	did not respond

%	Preferred Change in Job
27	little change
50	constant change
10	qualified
13	did not respond

D.

%	Job Status
37	Presently employed
48*	less than 30 hours a week
52*	more than 30 hours a week

%	
9	seeking paying job
55*	less than 30 hours a week
45*	more than 30 hours a week

* percentage of subgroup

E. Religious and Political Affiliation

%	Religion
65	protestant
16	catholic
3	jewish
16	none

%	Political Affiliation
35	Democrat
47	Republican
15	Independent
3	Other, qualified

Table 2. ORGANIZATIONAL PARTICIPATION

A. Organizational involvement

%	Number of Associations
2	none at present
27	one
26	two
18	three
12	four
7	five
6	six
2	seven to nine

Mean - 2.7

%*	Organizational type
20	School
10	Youth Services
13	Church
10	Social
31	Welfare
6	Library and Historic
6	Political
3	Professional
1	Undetermined

*percentages based on the 1,379 affiliations listed by the 513 respondents.

B. Skills used in the volunteer job

%*	Type of Skills
34	Administrative and policy-making skills
35	Clerical and supportive skills
31	Direct service and expressive skills

*percentages based on 3,668 skills checked

C. Total Hour Involvement of Respondents

Basis of Involvement	Hours on this basis	Converted to hours per week	
Daily basis	100	100 hr. x 5 days =	500 hrs.
Weekly basis	1,828	=	1,828
Monthly basis	3,038	3,038÷ 4 wks. =	760
Occasional basis	6,107	6,107÷ 52 wks. =	117
		Total	3,205 hrs.

Average hours per week per respondent	3,205 hrs. ÷ 513 res. = 6.2 hrs.
Full-time workers needed to replace volunteers	3,205 hrs. ÷ 40 hrs. = 80 workers
Cost of hiring at $8,000 salary/yr.	80 x $8,000 = $640,000
Extrapolating to adjusted* population	4,102 ÷ 513 = 8

*The population of 4,609 was reduced by 11% which represents the percentage of respondents returning the questionnaire blank because of non-active status.

Total monetary equivalent	8 x $640,000 = $5,120,000

Table 3: ATTITUDES OF THE VOLUNTEER WOMEN TOWARD GENERAL JOB SATISFACTION

(responses are below statement)

	Strongly agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly disagree
I feel a sense of accomplishment in the volunteer work I do.	42%	47%	7%	3%	1%
Volunteer work fritters a women's time and keeps her from making a significant contribution.	1%	2%	10%	51%	36%
The community respects my efforts as a volunteer.	17%	55%	23%	4%	1%
My volunteer activities allow me to use my abilities.	20%	61%	10%	7%	2%
Volunteer work allows a woman to influence and shape the character of the community in an important way.	19%	55%	18%	7%	1%
I do volunteer work because of my love for God.	11%	30%	12%	30%	17%
I do volunteer work because of my love for my fellowman.	20%	53%	14%	11%	2%
There is a need for improved understanding between professionals and volunteer workers.	15%	42%	31%	11%	1%
If it were possible I would prefer to be paid for my work.	14%	16%	16%	39%	15%
I feel pressured to do volunteer work. It's expected of me.	3%	14%	7%	52%	24%
I get angry when I think that others are paid for the same things I do.	3%	7%	9%	52%	29%
I do volunteer work because I cannot find a suitable paying job.	2%	5%	3%	47%	43%

Table 4: ATTITUDES OF THE VOLUNTEER WOMEN TOWARD POLICY CHANGE PROPOSALS

Society 'uses women and keeps them economically dependent by expecting them to provide services on a voluntary basis'.	3%	12%	15%	52%	18%
The volunteer members of an organization should be represented in the policy formation	24%	54%	14%	8%	0
Volunteer work supports democracy by encouraging citizen initiative.	20%	68%	10%	1%	1%
The experiences I have had in community and volunteer activities are significant enough to be academically credited.	12%	22%	19%	39%	8%
Coordination and cooperation between the public and private sectors will provide better human services but administration and policy should remain separate.	8%	53%	27%	11%	1%

Some need for professional recognition was demonstrated in the approximately 57 percent agreement toward the value of such items as written evaluation, reimbursement for expenses, insurance, tax deduction and social security.

"THE COLLEGE STUDENT AS ADVOCATE"

BARBARA R. MORGAN, BARD COLLEGE, ANNANDALE-ON-HUDSON, N.Y.

ABSTRACT:

Bard College is a small undergraduate liberal arts institution in rural upstate New York. In September 1976, the College was the recipient of a one-year grant from the New York State Council for Developmental Disabilities under the Development Disabilities Assistance and Bill of Rights Act. The title for this project is "Developmentally Disabled Adults: A One-to-One Advocacy and Education Program to Achieve Maximum Feasible Participation in Community Activities in Group Homes and Community Normalization Skills."

The Advocacy portion of the project focused on the constitutional right of the developmentally disabled to individual treatment plans. Students evaluated these plans in terms of compliance with federal and state laws and, where appropriate, provided assistance in the implementation of the plans through educational programs. The target population was those developmentally disabled adults, most of whom had been institutionalized for as long as 40 years, who are now living in community facilities in Dutchess County, where Bard College is also located. Students participated in field study/service experiences and were provided with academic orientation by the head of the Psychology Department, and were supervised in the field by the Community Outreach Coordinator.

The preliminary results of the project and the problems encountered will be dealt with in this paper. The final assessment of the project in September 1977, will provide the New York State Department of Mental Hygiene with baseline information as to the feasibility and validity of supporting similar projects in colleges throughout the entire state.

HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE

A brief overview of the public care of the mentally disabled in the United States is essential for an understanding of the Bard College project as part of a developmental process of socio-culture attitude changes.

In the middle of the nineteenth century there was an optimistic attitude toward the educability of the mentally disabled and many publicly supported schools were founded to prepare the retarded for a place in society. However, by the last quarter of the century, attitudes shifted pessimistically and the institutions moved toward the custodial asylum or farm colony model where the primary purpose was to protect the retarded from the rigors of life in the community. The eugenic alarm of the early twentieth century shifted the emphasis to protecting society from the fruits of retardation: namely crime, papuperism and degeneracy. The custodial institutions grew within a legal framework which was aimed at reducing the reproductive rate of the retarded. Though the eugenic alarm scare passed, the large residential institution did not and the "warehousing" of the retarded persisted as our major public policy until the middle of this century. By 1970, over 220,000 mentally disabled persons were being maintained in public and private institutions whose average size was between 2,000 and 3,000 patients.

However, a combination of forces has been at work to change this pattern. National leadership from many Presidental Commissions as well as from a parent group, the National Association for Retarded Children, coupled with significant federal court decisions began to affirm the rights of the mentally disabled under constitutional protection. The rights of the retarded to humane care and adequate education and subsequent changes in federal and state legislation have given impetus to the placement of these people in community-based facilities.

The term developmentally disabled was adopted as an administrative category to financially expedite the transition of funds from state institutions to county levels. Developmental disabilities are defined as neurological handicaps of mental retardation, cerebral palsy, epilepsy, autism, and severe dyslexia which originate before the age of 18 and constitute substantial disabilities which prevent normal participation in society. The developmentally disabled have the legal right to non-institutional care, education, health services, recreation, and vocational training. The major task of the advocate in this social service system is to ensure that these rights are respected and that the necessary services are available to those needing them.

BARD COLLEGE DEVELOPMENTAL DISABILITIES PROJECT:

There are two contract agencies in Dutchess County with sheltered workshop/normalization skill training programs. The Dutchess County Association for Retarded Children provides vocational training for 96 moderately to severely retarded adults. The other agency, Rehabilitation Programs, Inc. provides services for developmentally disabled from infancy through adulthood. The adult program presently serves 167 clients. These agencies contract with the county for funding of their programs. Another program, Continuing Services, is funded directly by the New York State Department of Mental Hygiene and serves 394 clients; a mixed poupulation of developmentally disabled and emotionally disturbed adults.

Students recruited to volunteer for Fall semester began their field experiences; some at an evening recreation program, some at the state institution, and others in a local Family Care Home for five men. The culmination of the first quarter of the project was a Christmas party held on the campus for 60 developmentally disabled adults. The idea for the party came after several students attended a dance at Rehabilitation Programs. The students were upset when they saw that the only "normal" people at the party, other than paid professionals, were themselves. The students canvassed local businesses for gift donations, made wrapping paper, helped the adults make decorations for the tree that they cut down, and recruited other students to help at the party. The local chapter of Jaycees and several other community groups attended the party also.

The second quarter of the project was conducted during the winter intersession for a four week period. Eleven students worked 35 hours per week and were supported by stipends from the grant. Each student was assigned to three clients in the agency programs and evaluated the individual treatment plan for each client for comprehensiveness and appropriateness. In addition, students were required to keep daily log books, attend weekly seminars, work with their clients in the sheltered workshops and recreation programs, and make weekly home visits.

What the students discovered in their investigations was a full range from careful compliance with the legislative guidelines to complete lack of evidence.

> After four weeks Ellen could find no record of any treatment plan for her client in any of his records. Jim had recently been released from the state institution for the retarded but the paperwork had either not been done or had not yet caught up with his community placement.

> When Tony asked to see his client's plan he was handed a file which contained not only the plan but a complete medical, pyschological, and social history of his client.

It is interesting to note the differences between agencies and their attitudes towards the students. Legally, the client's treatment plan is considered the only portion of his file that is public record, yet two agencies allowed the students to see all the pertinent information while the other only allowed them to see the treatment plan.

The home visits added a dimension to the experience through which the students discovered that community facilities were often mini-institutions themselves.

> On Jeff's visits to Tom's Family Care Home he found sixteen men living in clean but relatively sterile surroundings. The men were confined to the basement area where they had a large color television set but the lights were turned off to save electricity. Tom had indicated an interest in history and Jeff had supplied him with some books to read but found that Tom had no light to read by.

The students soon came to realize that what the treatment plan stated on paper and what the reality of the client's life was were often subtly incongruous. A quote from Shelia's log book is a poignant example:

> "I've decided that I don't like the Jones Family Care Home very much. There's no room for growth--its so stifling. All the men do is sit around, smoke and watch television. They don't get out very much on the weekends--especially in the Winter....They really don't seem like they're very happy...."

At the conclusion of this four-week period the students met together to share their experiences collectively. A list of suggestions was composed for each of the agency programs based upon the one-to-one relationships. Following are some examples of their suggestions:

- Clients need programs in sexual eduation in addition to strictly remedial education;
- The mixture of ability levels among clients in one program met the needs of the norms but did not adequately meet the needs of the high and low level functioning clients;
- More involvement of the agency programs with the residential caretakers was identified as a common need in all programs;
- The size of the agency programs and the residential facilities do not allow for individaul clients to have much personal freedom. Shopping, traveling, and recreation and even trips to the barbershop are all done on a group basis. A client wishing to have his hair cut has to wait for the scheduled trip to the barbershop. If a client runs out of toothpaste he has to wait as long as two to three weeks until his shopping day comes up on the schedule.

The lists of programmatic suggestions which the students composed were sent to the directors of each program, the Coordinator of the County Developmental Disablilities Advisory Committee, and to the New York State Council on Developmental Disabilities in the State capital. The feedback which we solicited and recieved was as interesting as it was diverse. One director responded to each suggestion in detail. He elaborated on how the agency was planning to meet these needs in the future and stated: "While we were aware of some of the shortcomings mentioned by the students, their comments have helped us to recommit ourselves to eliminating the shortcomings and to continue working toward the constant improvements of our program." On the other end of the spectrum we received feedback to the effect that the students' suggestions were unfounded and inaccurate. This agency director stated that:...."program related information solicited or elicited from clients can be unreliable...."

During the third quarter, students are volunteering as they did during the first quarter of the project. The number of students involved has dropped to six, as second semester academic requirements are demanding more of their time. Psychology Professor, Frank Oja, is teaching a course titled Developmental Disablilities, which is open to all students on campus. Professor Oja also presented the project to his peers in a recent Faculty Seminar.

For the final quarter, fifteen students will work for ten weeks during the summer, again supported by grant stipends. We plan to capitalize on some of our previous experiences and also include a larger academic component for this final period.

PROBLEMS ENCOUNTERD:

Technical problems:

1) Much more lead time would have been beneficial in laying the foundations for this project. The project was to begin in full swing in September 1976. On September 9th, I began as the field supervisor of the grant. I had to learn what the project proposed to do, recruit students, meet agency personnel, understand the financial red tape of the budget,

and on and on, without ever having set foot on the Bard College campus prior to my starting date. It is only now that I am beginning to understand the complexities of this project and sadly this is mostly through hindsight.

2) Transportation has been the second most difficult obstacle. The College is located in a rural, decentralized county. The average travel time one way to any agency program is one-half hour. Available College-owned vehicles are scarce and there is no adequate mass transportation system in the county. A budget request was made to allow the College to purchase a van to transport the students. The State would not allow us to purchase a vehicle this expensive but said an older economy car was possible if we found one. We did find one and when I called the State Office for approval the grant supervisor was on vacation. His superior gave verbal approval over the telephone and we became the owners of a Mercury Comet sedan. When the grant supervisor returned from vacation he sent me a letter with the following comments: "....Frankly, I was thinking of an older cheaper vehicle but I have to allow what you were given permission over the phone to purchase...." This entire process took five months to accomplish.

Human problems:

1) Agency attitudes towards the project: I attended a meeting of the Dutchess County Developmental Disabilities Advisory Committee in September. I discussed the project with the members of this group which includes the directors of the contract agencies. Their expressed needs were primarily for some "free help" and they really did not want to hear that students would be acting as advocates for clients in their programs. I attempted to disavow them of the notion that the Bard students would become another "Nader's Raiders" group but they were still not pleased with the concept of undergraduate, (and in the words of one director, "immature little freshmen"),students poking around in their records and their programs.

2) Student attitudes towards the project: The demands of the commitment that the students were asked to make as volunteers during the academic semesters were often prohibitive. Exams, and other academic requirements were, of necessity, the first priority for students. During the two quarters where students were not involved in course work but were working full-time for the project, and being paid for their work, the level of responsibility and dedication to the project was highest. The retention of volunteers throughout the year was extremely poor; only three students worked on the project for the full year.

RESULTS OF THE PROJECT:

As a project primarily concerned with advocating for clients' rights, the area of greatest impact should be on the clients themselves. To date this has not been substantiated by our efforts. The following discussion of results delineates the project's impact upon those involved in it.

Impact upon the service delivery agency programs:

By working through agency programs and county officials we were restricted to only those clients already being served. Since there are approximately 7,000 developmentally disabled in our county of 250,000 population; the number receiving services through these programs is only about 10% of the 7,000. The other 90% are those who have the greatest need for the active intercession of advocates and were not part of the target population in the project.

As non-legal advocates, the students are regarded by the agencies as "nice volunteers" but their role as advocates has no status attached to it. The clients' needs as perceived by the agency and their needs as perceived by the students range from mutually held to diametrically opposed. Even if these agencies had shown gross neglect or abuse of clients, the students' attempts at advocating, i.e., speaking on the clients' behalf, would not have been accepted by the agencies.

Advocacy which would require changes in these bureaucracies was essentially doomed from the beginning. To effect change in a social system, an advocate must have clout, and college students are not regarded as persons which agencies must account to for their actions.

Impact upon the community:

Publicity in the local newspapers has made the community aware of the project goals. I was invited to speak to the local chapter of Jaycees and found several of their members to be interested in assisting the students. We are planning some cooperative programs for the summer to organize recreational activities for the clients.

The owner of one Family Care Home has also been assisted by the project. The students provided help with teaching leisure time activities for the men she cares for in her home. In addition, they interested her in taking Professor Oja's course in Developmental Disabilities during the Spring semester.

Impact upon the clients:

These adults have been provided, at best, with brief friendships. The students, as with many others in the clients' lives, entered, were involved for a short time, and left. No substantive changes have occured in the clients' lives through the efforts of the students.

> Client Jim, a 61 year old man, went bowling, attended a party on the College campus, toured an historic mansion, and had some individual attention paid to him by the students. None of these activities would have occured in the absence of the students. However, Jim was reported missing in January from his Family Care Home and found on Good Friday in the woods about a mile from his home. The cause of death is still a mystery and the question remains as to whether anyone could have prevented it.

Impact upon the College:

Bard College has no field study/service for which students may receive academic credit. This project and Professor Oja's efforts have laid the groundwork for a proposal which is being presented to the College to accredit field study/service, experiential learning opportunities.

Impact upon the students:

This has been the area of greatest impact. Students found this a truly humanizing experience--they gave their time and attention to another human being and were rewarded with unabashed expressions of gratitude. Some students gained a better understanding of their own abilities and disabilities. As a career exploration experience some students discovered careers previously unkown to them. Several others found that actually working with retarded adults was not what they had expected and redirected their career goals. Also, for many students this was their first contact with bureaucracies of social service agencies.

Growth in individual initiative was also nurtured by this project. Small groups of 2-3 students banded together on their own to organize activities for some of the clients who live closest to the College campus. They took the clients to College basketball games, had birthday parties for them in the lounge of the dormitory, and even brought them to the folk dancing classes conducted on campus.

The most significant change which occured was the destigmatization of retardation in the attitudes of the students. Their fears and prejudices were overcome through their one-to-one relationships. A quote from one of the students is ample evidence of the human value of the project. She responded to the question, "What ideas about mentally disabled people were changed by actually working with them?", as follows:

"I can't say that intellectually I had experienced any change in myself, but I did emotionally. I knew they wouldn't 'attack' me, and had no fear of them--but I admit that the first time I entered a room filled with them I nearly panicked and could only think 'My God, what am I doing here?' Now I feel perfectly comfortable dealing with them on a personal level. I guess somehow I never thought of them as people."

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THE SERVICE AGENCY LOOKS AT STUDENT VOLUNTEERS

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Swamped in October, bone dry by Christmas, the agency manpower planner regards student volunteers as a mixed blessing. Hard pressed for funds, each agency has to justify taking on any kind of new staff in cost/benefit terms. Twenty hours of service of which are five are spent in training (which also ties up expensive staff time) produce an equation dangerously close to no margin of benefit. Some agencies aren't very enthusiastic about any volunteers, and students seem to them to be more likely to rock the boat than others, asking questions which have no easy answers. Fortunately, a few agencies see the benefits which are there.

In the face of such negative attitudes, it is remarkable that student volunteering has burgeoned into one of the largest categories of persons serving in many agencies, and that colleges and schools seeking placements for field experience are able to find them. Agencies feel student programs are a luxury to them. Unfortunately, in some communities, students simply shop around with little campus guidance until they find a place to put in their hours. If they are lucky, they find a volunteer director who can counsel them into a spot where they can have a valid learning experience, do something worthwhile and explore vocational choices through firsthand observation and contact. In others, they are perceived as free labor and put to work doing tasks the staff dislikes to do. So they leave.

Agency orientation and training are essential to volunteer effectiveness. No matter how sophisticated and knowledgable any new staff member is, orientation is essential for fitting into a new role in a new setting and working there with volunteers is part of the adjustment. Training becomes a process for testing personal goals for congruence with those of the other persons with whom one works: the "consumer" of volunteer services, and the other paid providers of agency services, as well as the volunteers. Most agenices have found the best way to develop teamwork is to begin in orientation and training.

Promotion from direct service to policy and program development roles for staff and volunteers is an opportunity particularly significant for students. Their idealism and fresh viewpoint is a priceless contribution to the planning process. Volunteering experience can qualify them for positions on policy making levels, within agencies, and in community groups. Under the new federalism, many laws are thrusting decision-making about priorities for limited community resources, revenue sharing and United Fund disbursement back to the community level. The informed citizenry which this trend requires should include student volunteers with fresh knowledge of current theory and keen observation. Slowly it is dawning on communities that the old "easy money" days of federal categorical programs are over, and that the money distributed under General and Special Revenue Sharing and block grants is subject to many competing demands in every community. Expectations whetted by experimental and demonstration short term projects are building constituencies which feel the worth of the initial experiment proves their need and ought to justify high priority. Students are less awed by traditional hierarchies, and are ardent advocates for what they believe to be just.

At the same time, they need to learn some grim realities, that there are real limits to local and federal resources, expecially during the current "stagflation" high unemployment and depression. Bricks and mortar are wearing out, and demands for services ever increasing. Nowhere better than at public hearings can students see the real taxpayer rebellion and the intensified competition for support of human services. As the power structure decision-makers of tomorrow, students need maximum exposure to all facets of human needs, all forms of services and all means of problem solving. The current college generation will be the responsible work force supporting services for an ever-increasing proportion of elderly persons who have organized effectively and vote according to responsiveness to their needs. (Appropriations for programs for the Older Americans often exceed the estimates submitted by the bureaus responsible for implementing them!) School bond issues and budgets are meeting increasing resistance, with falling enrollments. A few years ago, it was said to be the other way around; schools and children took top priority, but this seems no longer to be true. Student group activism has calmed down as advocacy for other people. A less altruistic activism is emerging in protest to their own tuition costs, which have certainly skyrocketed. They need to see the larger picture, too.

The agencies would like to see a return of some of the altruism which characterized student activists in the 60's and early 70's. Directors of volunteer services are recruiting on a different rationale: no longer "what you can do to change the system", but "how you can acquire qualifying experience as a volunteer for your future career." Many students who have a good experience as volunteers are ultimately hired by the same agency upon graduation. Even if this doesn't work out, the agency finds the ex-volunteer can be interpreter of its program, sympathetic to the needs of its target group.

We have learned in a few years of growing emphasis on field experience education that having students join a staff brings word of new technology or theory which the service professionals might be too busy to learn about, otherwise. The opportunity for direct application and testing is stimulating much needed research in the voluntary sector, and the opportunity for classroom analysis may well improve agency practice. Field experience quality depends on two key counselors: the quality of the campus counseling which guides student interests to an appropriate agency and the quality of agency counseling and training which reduces the pre-service period and deepens the commitment of the student to the service. Optimum cross fertilization is possible when faculty assist in training agency staff and volunteers, not abdicating the educative function entirely to the agency. Volunteers and agency staff feel truly recognized when asked to teach at a college. We need more of this exchange of wisdom learned from study and wisdom learned from direct observation and personal experience.

We have also learned that group placements double commitment to serve, by adding peer pressure. A volunteer serving with a group has to answer to his peers as well as to the "voluntee" and the paid staff involved. Even if the student volunteer works one-to-one with a client or on his own, his identity as a group member for feedback or social purposes will insure his performance for the honor of the group as well as for the sake of the service. He may want to outshine his fellow group members. Competitiveness is a value as long as it improves performance and reliability and doesn't put stress on the clients involved. The agency has primary accountability for continuity and quality of services, and must monitor paid staff and volunteer service accordingly.

Students are quick to criticize the way people have to diagnose their own problems, and figure out for themselves where to go for help in many communities. Not enough agencies have outreach programs, or reschedule for their constuency needs instead of staff convenience. Students have observed that some agencies are preoccupied with selection of clients to serve, rather than inclusive. Students say they like telephone crisis or information service because there they can offer a meaningful response to urgent needs. The ombudsman is a popular role for students, who need to understand that *class advocacy*, *for all* the victims of a problem, is much more effective than going to bat for *one* person. Securing preferential treatment for one person may mean real injustices to others quite as needful. Students enjoy being a linking volunteer, as helping a patient in the transition from a mental institution into public school. Such linking gives the only continuous relationship the youth has, and sustains him over a difficult transition period. Agencies cannot afford enough paid staff time to soften the cultural shock as much as volunteers can do.

Alvin Toffler, of *Future Shock* fame, in *Ecospasm* speaks of futurism as "anticipatory participation." It is to be hoped that student volunteers can use field experience learning to improve future human services. The optimism characteristic of youth is greatly needed by social agencies discouraged by fiscal and program demand pressures. Not knowing what has failed in the past, students often go ahead with an idea and prove that it can be done, after all. Often they wind up very respectful of the skills of the staff, and enter the same profession.

Students represent the most rapidly growing category of volunteers. Many helping professions regard student volunteering as upstream recruiting to their calling.

The degree of faculty interest in the agency, willingness to help with orientation, training and follow through with the students is a determinant of how agency staff regard student programs. Students can bridge not only clients but their educational institutions to agencies. Where faculty is indifferent, often agency staff have to be convinced that student volunteers are worth the trouble. Here the agency executive attitude and the reward system of the organization are crucial factors. Paid staff are quick to perceive whether student volunteers are really welcome, and act accordingly. The students win acceptance with responsible, mature behavior and that in itself is a good educational experience!

EXPANDED HORIZONS

A PROGRAM FOR UTILIZING THE ABILITIES OF OLDER AMERICANS TO STRENGTHEN AND EXPAND 4-H

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The words, "Expanded Horizons," could have many meanings. To 4-H'ers, older Americans and Extension Agents in Southwest Virginia, they have a very special meaning. They mean basket weaving, banjo picking, flat-footing, crocheting. They mean dried apple pies, molasses stack cake, and split hickory stool bottoms. They mean county history, telling it like it was many years ago; they mean chivaree, riving, canning and apple butter. They mean bridging the generation gap with older Americans and 4-H'ers learning together.

Expanded Horizons was the title selected to describe a pilot 4-H program conducted in six Southwest Virginia counties. The primary purpose of the pilot effort was to identify older Americans with knowledge and talents related to creative and performing arts, recruit these talented older Americans as 4-H volunteers, and bring them together with the 4-H members interested in learning about these subjects.

The results have been almost unbelievable. In the eight months from September 1975 through April 1976, a total of 763 older Americans were recruited as 4-H volunteers. A wide variety of learning activities were arranged, involving 7,529 4-H'ers with these volunteers. Some older Americans came to school club meetings and demonstrated their talents and crafts. Some just talked about the way things used to be. Some worked with one or two 4-H'ers in their homes on specific projects. Some were project leaders for small groups. Others directed activities, such as 4-H Dress Revues and Share the Fun. Still others took pictures, kept records, provided transportation, and led singing.

In addition to the very direct benefits to 4-H'ers as they learned from the experience of these older Americans, there were many other rewards. Older American volunteers developed a new outlook on life, as they again felt needed and wanted. Many old crafts were revived and passed on. Four-H'ers saw older Americans in a new way, recognizing them as having useful and interesting knowledge and skills. Four-H programs were expanded and strengthened. The 4-H image was broadened as people read and heard about this program.

Expanded Horizons was a part of a larger project titled "Prolonging the Usefulness and Independence of Older Americans." This project was funded through the State Agency for Title I of the Higher Education Act of 1965. Funds were provided to the Extension Division, Virginia Tech, to hire six Extension Technicians (paraprofessionals) for the express purpose of recruiting older Americans with interests and abilities in creative and performing arts, as volunteers in the 4-H program. The pilot effort involved Buchanan, Dickenson, Lee, Scott, Wise and Wythe Counties in Southwest Virginia.

Although not conducted as a research project, the experiences of Extension Agents and Technicians in this program can serve as a basis for several conclusions, leading to direct implications for 4-H programs. Many of these implications are also valid for other Extension program areas, as well as other youth organizations.

CONCLUSION: OLDER AMERICANS HAVE A WIDE VARIETY OF SKILLS AND KNOWLEDGE WHICH ARE OF INTEREST TO THE YOUTH OF TODAY. The fact that older Americans possess these many talents came as no surprise. The degree of interest of 4-H members in these talents was overwhelming. Quilting, crocheting, wood carving, antique guns, county history, music and dance were but a few of the subjects which brought young and old americans together for learning and fun.

PROGRAM IMPLICATION: Older Americans are a resource which 4-H programs can and should utilize.

CONCLUSION: OLDER AMERICANS ARE WILLING TO SHARE THEIR KNOWLEDGE AND TALENTS WITH 4-H'ERS IF WE USE THE RIGHT APPROACH. Several factors became quickly evident. Older americans generally do not regard their abilities and knowledge as important or interesting. They were reluctant to think of giving speeches or demonstrations. They wanted to know very specifically what was expected of them. They were reluctant to make long-term committments. Many were willing to work only with small groups. They had to be cultivated by technicians to establish a relationship and confidence before they would serve as volunteers.

PROGRAM IMPLICATION: When we recruit volunteers, we need to first identify particular talents which are needed, develop clearly defined expectations for volunteers, then recruit for these specific tasks. The organizational structure for utilizing older Americans as volunteers needs to be designed to fit each situation and may be different from any we have used before. Some new structures might also work with more traditional projects and other volunteers.

CONCLUSION: PROGRAMMING FOR OLDER AMERICAN VOLUNTEERS REQUIRES TIME AND CONTINUOUS PLANNING, BUT WILL PAY DIVIDENDS. The only real difference in working with older americans than other volunteers, is that older americans may require more time initially to develop their confidence and a little more follow up.

PROGRAM IMPLICATION: If we are to have a successful volunteer program, we must give it a high priority and commit our abilities and time to it.

CONCLUSION: WITH PROPER ORGANIZATION AND PREPARATION, OLDER AMERICAN VOLUNTEERS CAN AND WILL MAKE THINGS HAPPEN WITHOUT AGENTS BEING PRESENT. The presence of an extension agent or technician frequently made the older american volunteers self conscious. We, the professionals, because of our education and experience, and perhaps somewhat different way of doing things, actually represented a threat to many of the older american volunteers.

PROGRAM IMPLICATION: The role of the professional should be to plan and organize to bring volunteers and 4-H'ers together for learning and fun. We need to provide the structure, the materials, and the support, and then, let things happen.

CONCLUSION: SUCCESSFUL VOLUNTARY SERVICE INCREASES A PERSON'S SELF-ESTEEM. One of the major benefits cited by the technicians working with older american volunteers was their increased feeling of being needed and of having knowledge and talents which were of value to others. "Each one enjoyed being really needed." "The thrill they get from helping is good for their self-concept." "A new outlook on life as they find themselves needed." Were typical statements made by the technicians.

PROGRAM IMPLICATION: Professionals responsible for volunteer programs must structure volunteer efforts to assure success. If this conclusion is true, then the opposite would be equally true. Unsuccessful voluntary service would tend to decrease a person's self-esteem. In the case of Older Americans, this would serve to reinforce feelings of doubt and inadequacy which many already hold.

CONCLUSION: OLDER AMERICANS VOLUNTEER MORE READILY FOR SOMEONE THEY KNOW. Many of the expanded horizons volunteers would not have agreed to serve as 4-H volunteers if asked by extension agents. Technicians were more nearly their age, and were long time residents of the counties in which they worked. Often, several visits were necessary to convince older americans they had interesting talents and the ability to pass this on to boys and girls.

PROGRAM IMPLICATIONS: Volunteers from the community could serve effectively as recruiters of other volunteers. Here again, we would have to identify talents needed, and develop expectations before asking a volunteer to recruit others. We should also help them to recognize several contacts may sometimes be necessary before a volunteer is obtained.

None of these conclusions is surprising; none of them are new. They do, however, point to a resource we are using only sparingly, if at all, in 4-H programs. What could be more satisfying than helping older Americans develop their self-esteem and confidence as they help 4-H members relate the past to the present?

WELCOME TO THE REAL WORLD: UTILIZATION OF VOLUNTEER TRAINEES IN COMMUNITY MENTAL HEALTH CONSULTATION

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This paper describes a project in which a university-based children's mental health center provided volunteer consultation to four nonmental health community agencies. The project represented an attempt to deemphasize a traditional medical model of mental health service delivery and to focus greater attention on a community model.

1. THE MEDICAL AND COMMUNITY MODELS

The medical model has predominated as the standard mode of mental health service delivery in the 1900's. Under this model [Zax & Cowen, 1972], services (e.g., counseling, psychotherapy, psychological testing and evaluation) are provided to persons in need after disabilities have already developed. Services are normally clinic- or office-located and consist of a mental health professional (psychiatrist, psychologist, or social worker) working directly with either an individual or a small group. Often a disease concept is adopted by the practitioner, in which a cluster of behaviors are regarded as symptomatic of a defined mental "illness," which can then be treated in a disease-specific manner by psychological and/or physical means.

In recent years, this approach to emotional and behavior problems has come under criticism for a variety of reasons [Zax & Spector, 1974]; (a) The efficacy of traditional long-term psychotherapy has increasingly been called into question [e.g., Eysenck, 1961]. (b) The medical model has resulted in an unequal distribution of services, with the well-to-do tending to receive individual psychotherapy and intensive treatment to a much greater extent than lower socioeconomic groups, who are often given custodial care and more physical types of intervention (e.g., psychotropic medication) [Hollingshead & Redlich, 1952]. (c) The person seeking assistance is frequently placed in a dependent, "one-down" position, as he/she is regarded as a "patient" who is the recipient of treatment from the professional "authority". (d) Surveys have revealed a vast latent need for mental health services in the general community [e.g., Srole, Langner, Michael, Opler, & Rennie, 1962], a need which will never be met by mental health professionals at the current rate at which they are being trained [Albee, 1959]. (e) The appropriateness of the notion of mental illness has been a subject of controversy, with many [e.g., Szasz, 1960] believing that the concept of abnormal behavior is one that is inextricably grounded in a society's moral and legal definition of what constitutes deviance. (f) The passive orientation of the medical model results in mental health professionals treating only a small number of persons, whose problems have existed for a lengthy period of time and have become more or less entrenched and thus difficult to remediate.

In an attempt to provide an alternative to the medical model, the community approach has gained increased adherence over the past decade and a half [Zax & Spector, 1974]. This approach stresses early intervention, the prevention of disorder, and the building in of competencies in the general and in high risk populations. Such an orientation entails a radically different perspective for the mental health professional. Rather than confining oneself to his/her office and passively waiting for clients to request treatment, the community-oriented mental health professional enters the community to work with those caregivers and social service agents who themselves have direct contact with populations at risk. Thus a mental health professional concerned with children's needs might focus his/her attention on such groups as parents, teachers, and police, who represent important influences on the lives of youngsters. By such activities as consultation to, and training of, nonmental health agencies, professionals, and paraprofessionals, he/she attempts to broaden his/her impact beyond that obtained by direct services to children alone. The hope is that by such outreach efforts, the professional will be able to decrease the number of children who will later develop problems serious enough to require intensive assessment and treatment.

2. THE PORTAGE COUNTY CHILDREN'S SERVICES CENTER--BACKGROUND AND EARLY FUNCTIONING

The Portage County Children's Services Center (PCCSC) was created in 1975 to serve the mental health needs of children ages 0 to 18 in a semi-rural northeastern Ohio county of 110,000. Prior to 1975, several agencies around the county had included youngsters and adolescents as a minor or major portion of their treatment caseload. In an effort to reduce the fragmentation created by this situation, the Portage County Mental Health Board, the body responsible for overseeing mental health services, decided to fund one agency that would have central responsibility for children's mental health. Several groups, including the local adult community mental health center, Kent State University's (K.S.U.'s) special education department, and K.S.U's psychology department, submitted bids for this grant, with the psychology department being the victor. Among the principal reasons for the psychology department being selected over the other bidders were the free space offered by the department and the availability of graduate students to serve as staff members in various capacities. Thus, though a public agency supported mainly by county and state funds, PCCSC is located on the K.S.U. campus in the psychology building, with its staff possessing university and departmental, as well as civil service, appointments.

For the first nine months of its operation, PCCSC provided primarily medical model services, due to three factors: (a) the heavy demand by a previously underserved public for direct clinic-based counseling, therapy, and testing services, (b) the need for PCCSC to prove itself to demonstrating competence at delivering high quality conventional clinical services, and (c) the limited size of its staff, which consisted of a full-time clinical psychologist as agency director (D.G.), two half-time clinical psychology graduate student interns from K.S.U., and a half-day per week consulting psychiatrist. (Less experienced K.S.U., graduate students enrolled in their practicum course assisted, under supervision, in some of the psychological and psychoeducational testing conducted by the center.). Even if the staff had been larger, it should be noted that vigorous attempts to introduce more innovative, community-oriented activities "right off the bat" might have been resisted by the community due to its understanding and expectations of what constituted appropriate mental health services.

Thus, though some baby steps, such as a few teacher workshops, were taken in the direction of implementing the community model, PCCSC was unable to move as rapidly as desired in that direction.

3. THE SUMMER OF '76--LAYING THE GROUNDWORK

In the summer of 1976, an unforeseen opportunity arose for PCCSC to devote greater attention to community-based activities. Because of the vicissitudes of state mental health funding, enough public training money unexpectedly became available to support four summer interns (K.S.U. clinical psychology graduate students). During the summer months, as a result of such factors as family vacations and schools not being in session, the demand for, and number of referrals concerning, direct services was much lower than for the previous nine months. Thus, even though the summer interns were only half-time (20 hours per week each), there was not a sufficiently heavy caseload to fully occupy their time.

For this reason, as well as our desire to adopt the community model to a greater extent, PCCSC decided to seek out child-related community organizations and agencies to whom PCCSC (via its summer interns) could provide volunteer consultation services. Our goal was to locate organizations which, while not mental health facilities per se, had daily contact with significant populations of youngsters and had lacked significant mental health input up until that time. The community agencies we approached responded surprisingly warmly to our overtures since they were all continually finding themselves forced to deal with behavior problems and psychological issues for which they felt ill-equipped. An agreement was consequently negotiated whereby PCCSC's interns volunteered a half-day per week in one of the following facilities -- two day care centers, the juvenile court and detention center, and the local school and summer camp for the trainable mentally retarded. PCCSC's director (D.G.) maintained supervisory responsibility for the interns' activities.

We offered these consultation services on a voluntary, nonremunerative basis for three reasons:

1. Portage County is a relatively poor area (e.g., it contains the third worst rural ghetto in the United States), which is reflected in the inadequate budgets of its educational and social service facilities. At that time, therefore, the community agencies we approached would not have been able to contract for our consultation services on a financial basis.

2. After nine months, PCCSC was still a comparatively "new kid on the block," and as a good will and public relations gesture aimed at cultivating community contacts, we did not want to initially charge these agencies for our services.

3. Though graduate students possessing some consultation skills, the interns were still far from grizzled veterans at consultation and, by spending time in these facilities, would be acquiring additional first-hand experiences and skills, as well as providing services. In short, PCCSC envisioned several potential nonmonetary gains resulting from these summer consultation relationships.

For their part, the interns were as enthusiastic about volunteering their services to these community organizations, as they realized that this would offer them a departure from the usual limited training experience of clinical psychology graduate students. Typically, interns' training, even in community mental health centers, is confined mostly to the medical model, clinic-based services delineated above. Thus they are all too seldom (a) exposed to those real-world nonmental health facilities (e.g., schools, juvenile justice agencies, welfare departments) that work with youngsters and (b) given the chance to develop nontraditional, community-oriented capabilities (e.g., consultation, supervision and training, community organization and mediation, program development). Though mental health professionals are increasingly finding themselves in administrative positions concerned with program planning, operation, and evaluation, their training (both academic and practical) still leaves most of them inadequately prepared to assume such responsibilities.

4. THE CONSULTANTSHIPS--ROLES AND FUNCTIONS OF THE STUDENT VOLUNTEERS

Each volunteer consultant dealt directly with his or her agency after an initial introduction by PCCSC's director. In most cases the consultative process began with a "feeling out" period during which the consultant took part in the day-to-day activities of the agency. For example, one of the volunteers found herself dealing with a mass of three-year-olds on the playground of the day care center to which she was consulting. Another (K.W.) spent time with the summer camp group of the school for the retarded to which he was assigned. While the student consultants initially regarded this period of familiarization as somewhat irrelevant to their consulting activity, they came to see it as a necessary preliminary to meaningful interactions with the staff at a facility.

As the summer progressed, three of the four volunteer consultants were able to develop their relationships into roles more closely approximating true consultation. The slow stages through which the agency's perceptions of the student consultants evolved were highly educational. The students came to recognize the difficulties of "giving advice" to an institution rather than to an individual. For example, it became apparent that a consultant had not only to establish his/her own trustworthiness and value, but also to convince the agency to which he/she was consulting that PCCSC's interest was benign. In most of the encounters there were signs of the defensive maneuvers and suspicions common to many consultantships [Caplan, 1970]. Dealing with these gave the students experience impossible to obtain in the constrained academic environment.

There was an awareness that this experience was not only a personal effort but also one designed to introduce PCCSC to the community. This constraint, common to real-world work, has not typically been a part of training in mental health. Traditional training has emphasized the individual's responsibility to the client, but seldom the coordinate responsibility of representing the agency. In two cases (the school for the retarded and the juvenile court and detention center) the constraints of "carrying the flag" may have been as important as any direct consultative relationship. The students found themselves confronted with decisions about how to structure their roles, as the consultees subtly sought to impose their preconceptions upon the relationship. Concrete illustrations may be seen in the request that one volunteer wear a jacket and tie and consider shaving off his beard and in the assignment of direct assessment duties to another (with the presumption that assessment was what psychologists do). These experiences were particularly instructive in terms of establishing a workable consultative relation, as each student-consultant was faced with the challenge of establishing such a relationship.

Over the course of the summer, the consultantships progressed toward actual involvement in activities at a process level whereby the consultants worked with staff to solve problems facing the facilities. As might be expected, the degree to which the consultants were truly used as "experts" varied with the setting. One student provided staff training in techniques of behavior management to a day care center (thereby directly affecting the institution itself), while another found her role limited to offering suggestions about the control of the specific children she had been asked to assess. At the school for retarded children, the consultant began a series of mother discussion groups dealing with such topics as disciplining the retarded child, handling the feelings of other children in the family, etc. In one instance (the juvenile court) all attempts to affect the consultee facility at the organizational level were rebuffed either directly or indirectly, a frustrating experience which made real the natural limitations faced by any consultant.

In community psychology it is customary to assess interventions in terms of the extent to which they (1) result in self-perpetuating changes in the structure of a group and (2) promote a preventative concept whereby disturbances are avoided rather than treated after they develop [Katkin, 1972]. Viewed in these terms, the consultantships enjoyed modest success in dealing with staff training, parent education, and other interventions which have a prospect of lasting beyond the time of the actual consultative relation. In terms of introducing a new agency (PCCSC) into a sometimes resistant community, the summer consultantships must be considered a success. The feedback from the institutions at which student-consultants were placed has been entirely positive, ranging from cautious acceptance to enthusiasm. Perhaps more convincing and behavioral evidence is provided by the increase in the number of referrals for direct service made by these facilities to PCCSC.

5. STUDENTS AS EXPERT CONSULTANTS--STRENGTHS AND DRAWBACKS

The training benefits of consulting experience for graduate training in the mental health fields is apparent. The extent of actual contribution to the setting in which the student volunteers, though, is less obvious. Expert consultation requires appreciation of the system in which any given activity occurs, understanding of the possible avenues for change, and application of specific interventions designed to result in lasting change in the system. Students involved in our summer program could not be considered to possess skills in each of these three areas and were most lacking in the first two. However, they each commanded a set of specific intervention skills potentially unavailable to the consultee agency through other means. Thus, techniques of behavior modification such as time out, analysis of reinforcement contingencies, and development of management procedures were of use in several settings and could be considered expert skills of the consultants. Additionally, it was hoped that in the course of the consultantship, the students increased their "savvy" and "political" sophistication regarding systems, so that they would be better equipped to cope with future consultation settings.

Among the areas in which one or more of PCCSC's student consultants might be considered expert were (1) assessment and control of disruptive behavior in children, (2) counseling of children and adolescents, (3) group counseling techniques, and (4) understanding staff relations at a facility. Such skills can serve as a basic foundation for consulting to agencies concerned with youth.

While the student consultant is not a finished product ready to handle any contingency, advanced graduate students in the social sciences do possess proficiencies of potential value to community agencies. These skills can be fruitfully applied in a community approach where actual consultation takes place. Whereas students have long been recognized as valuable sources of direct volunteer labor, this use of their newly earned talents represents a divergent and innovative role for this population.

6. STUDENT EVALUATION

At the summer's conclusion, the interns completed a questionnaire surveying their opinions regarding their consultation experiences. Their response revealed a high degree of satisfaction with the project. The average ratings received (based on a scale of 0 (F) to 4.5 (A+) for the pertinent items were as follows:

1. How valuable were your field work experiences? 3.5

2. Were you involved in new and diverse roles? 4.1

3. Was the internship placed within larger contexts of social systems dealing with children? 3.6

4. Was the internship placed within larger contexts of clinical/community psychology? 4.1

5. To what extent did you become interested in children's mental health services? 3.8

It is noteworthy that none of the students gave a rating of less than 3.0 (B) to any of the above items, thus indicating a fairly uniform consensus regarding their activities.

7. CONCLUSIONS AND SUMMARY

The summer consultation program appears to have been generally successful in accomplishing PCCSC's goal of "carrying the flag" into new environments, thereby not only legitimizing PCCSC but strengthening the network of community interconnections as well. Thus, although the summer project was formally terminated at the end of August due to shifts in manpower, relationships between PCCSC and the four participating community agencies are being maintained on a more informal, "as needed" level. In addition, the consultation program has been extended to encompass additional facilities, including two school districts, the local Head Start program, and a neighborhood poverty center.

Lekisch (Note 1) has contrasted the differences among private consulting firms, community mental health centers (CMHC), and university graduate training programs in their contexts, priorities, and courses of action when providing long-term consultation. For example, Lekisch (Note 1) lists as the priorities of the CMHC consultant the following: (a) expansion of services, (b) intervention with populations not otherwise reached, (c) prevention and early intervention, (d) better integration into the community, and (e) liaison to other social service agencies. These may be compared with the primary aims of graduate training programs, as outlined by Lekisch: (a) practical training for graduate students, (b) development of an ongoing training program in community psychology with local community contacts and entry points, and (c) development of professional competencies. As all of the above were goals of PCCSC in initiating the volunteer consultation program, it seems that, while points of conflict may exist between the aims and practices of CMHC consultation and university graduate training, the two orientations need not be mutually exclusive. Those facilities finding themselves in unique situations, such as PCCSC (a community mental health agency located in a university and involved in graduate education), may be able to create the best of both worlds, imaginatively combining aspects of both CMHC consultation and graduate training programs in consultation.

Colleges and universities have been particularly adept at supplying community agencies with undergraduate paraprofessional volunteers who, though relatively untrained, generally compensate for any skill deficits by demonstrating an abundance of energy, curiosity, and open-mindedness. The project described here represents one example of how institutions of higher learning may offer higher level, "semi-professional" volunteers, combining the enthusiasm of the paraprofessional with some of the competencies of the trained practitioner.

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VOLUNTEERISM

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I am going to discuss briefly a subject that has provided a very rewarding experience for me, both as a doer and a trainer agent. I have served as a volunteer leader in some capacity in five states and the District of Columbia over a span of nearly 32 years. I was pleased to read an article in our Lexington Herald-Leader, Sunday, April 17, 1977 saluting volunteers in which Mrs. Lenora Isenhour, Executive Director of the Voluntary Action Center was quoted saying, "our whole nation is based upon the premise of volunteerism, giving of your time to help those in need. It's a unique aspect of our culture that has been maintained throughout our society from the volunteer soldiers of the Revolutionary War through today."

Almost every service agency in many communities would collapse without the ever-present, ever-giving volunteer. I think volunteerism is a part of America's uniqueness.

In 1966 I was fortunate to become a part of the Cooperative Extension Service and this provided me an opportunity to further develop my leadership skill and also become a trainer agent. In 1967 I became a part of Kentucky's Cooperative Extension Service. One of my first responsibilities was to study urban problems and see how Cooperative Extension Service could address these problems. Since my roots were deeply engrained in rural America, I felt the need for a crash course in urban ecology. We leased for one year an apartment on the fringe of one of Lexington's most crime ridden areas. From my windows, depending on which side I could look, I would see beautiful historic Transylvania University - or a historic stone wall that enclosed some of old Lexington's most legendary homes. The other two sides were urban poverty at its worst, which included youngsters searching dumpsters for food. Three months after living in the 96 unit apartment we learned its unofficial name was Peyton Place. This was an area of Lexington that my Area Extension Director had great interest and commitment. He served as a volunteer leader through his church and was interested in reducing the crime rate and assessing the needs of people in the area. This was a time of unrest in inner cities across the nation. We realized we needed to start somewhere. We selected Public Housing which consisted of 1320 units and the neighborhood surrounding where I lived. I tried to identify leaders from within but also recognized the need for larger community support and I helped organize what in 1968 became "Neighborly Organization of Women" -- an interracial and interfaith organization composed of women concerned about poverty in the inner city. We started out with two women, one a retired person who devoted eight plus hours a day most days, and this effort has developed into a group who has had a membership of over 300 members representing over 67 churches and other organizations. These represent all economic levels. Our first two volunteer leaders found satisfaction in what they were doing and reaching out was relatively easy from then on. We dealt with the problems of Lexington's poverty on a personal, one-to-one basis and with youth in the inner city. Our programs were designed to improve the quality of life for the whole family through self-help educational endeavors. We believed poverty to a significant degree could be overcome with enough helping concerned people providing opportunities for youth and the adult. Neighborly Organization of Women's philosophy has always been to work themselves out of one job and move on to another need.

Being a Home Economist, with special interest in Food and Nutrition and consumer education, I leaned heavily on this and brought in other expertise in other areas of need. Volunteer leaders were trained in consumer education and use of credit, basic nutrition, and human relations.

Basic Extension principles were studied and applied. We were mindful of Dr. H.C. Sanders statement, "The Cooperative Extension Service will for the foreseeable future contribute largely to maintaining three elements basically essential to the Republic: (a) an abundance of food and fiber; (b) family system that involves the home as an effective social and economic unit; and (c) a systematic process of leadership development." [Sanders, 1966, pg. 3].

We have recognized many changes in the communities. We have been able to develop leadership from within. Families are accepting more responsibilities. With the help of many agencies during the first two years of work in the community, crime rate dropped 30%. Many of the original families now make up part of three new well kept subdivisions.

Neighborly Organization of Women (NOW) sponsor five certified kindergartens and parents are ask to come and learn with their children and participate in teaching. We have approximately 80% parent participation. NOW visits inner city nursing homes, seeking to bring residents fellowship with music, quilting and birthday parties. One may also "Adopt-a-Friend" through NOW, a one-to-one caring relationship with a patient without family.

This organization has completed nine successful years. It has been recognized by the wives of the last three Presidents of the United States. A group of women from South American countries desiring to assume stronger leadership roles in their countries visited NOW in 1973 under the sponsorship of League of Women Voters and A.I.D.

In 1969 another dimension was added to the Cooperative Extension Service -- The Expanded Food and Nutrition Education Program. From its very beginning we started out involving volunteer leadership. In 1976 over 4,400 volunteers supported the Expanded Food and Nutrition Education Program (EFNEP).

Many of the volunteers in EFNEP are program homemakers and in a few cases the whole family. Homemakers teach the skills they have learned and participate in learning experiences with their children. They also serve in the six different categories we have identified in Kentucky.

1. Organizational Leader - responsible for setting up maintaining an organized group.
2. Project Leader - a person who leads or teaches a project or subject.
3. Advisory Leaders - individuals who assist in identifying the needs of the youth or adults in the community.
4. Activity or Event Leaders - assist with the implementation of an adult or youth educational program such as Day Camp, Judging Activity, Variety Show, Field Trip, or Creative Arts.
5. Recruitment Leaders - seek new leaders and clientele.
6. Support Leaders - provide program support through donations, services, or goods. For example: financial, materials for work, transportation.

Volunteer involvement in EFNEP is essential for maximum success of the program. This is also true of all Extension programs. Volunteers make it possible for us to multiply our efforts. Volunteers benefit by developing leadership skills and by experiencing a feeling of worth and of being needed.

Volunteer leaders are very important in programming -- people are most interested in programs which they help to plan. Before they become excited over educational Extension programs they must see a need for making changes or improvements. They must understand the opportunities which are possible and that the needed changes can be brought about.

Leaders are very important in programming:

1. They help the Extension agents to better understand the needs of local people.
2. They help the local people better understand their problems and the services available to them through the Extension program.

3. They help local governmental officials, other agencies and groups to understand Extension programs and how the Extension program contributes to the progress of the people of the county and area.

4. Leaders encourage participation in Extension programs.

5. They practice new and improved methods and techniques and motivate others to learn.

6. They attend educational meetings and workshops and teach others new skills and knowledge.

7. They remain alert to new needs and new opportunities.

8. They guide others to become leaders, community groups, Homemaker Clubs, 4-H Clubs and agricultural and developement committees select members to serve as leaders and to represent them on planning groups and councils. These democratic leaders speak for the group or community which they represent and express the peoples' problems, needs and interest as they interpret them and express the peoples' desire for information such as learning better ways of doing certain things or such as learning new skills, practices or knowledge.

The contacts and training which leaders receive in Extension planning groups as they meet with Extension agents, assistants and other resource people helps them to expand their knowledge and understanding of the needs of the people of their community and area. They also learn new opportunities and educational possibilities.

They in turn help their local groups to become aware of their problems and to understand the services available to meet their needs so that they plan more effective programs and educational experiences.

Volunteers from low-income, disadvantage audiences are encouraged to work with 4-H and adult programs.

In today's society the ecology of low-income life describes the balance between the needs of a growing and developing human being on the one hand, and social institutions which have evolved to meet those needs on the other.

Much more could be said about volunteerism, the how to and other examples. The essential parts of a successful volunteer program have been developed by many groups. The main principles are:

A. Define your need for volunteers - provide job description, time and place.

B. Have some type of interview system that is equal for all - clarifying what the agency expects.

C. Training before and during service
   1. Orientation
   2. Clear instructions covering rules and regulations of your program
   3. Clear rules concerning emergency situations
   4. Conferences and individual supervision

D. Recognition of volunteers.

E. Good working relationship between professional, (paraprofessional if involved) and volunteers.

The volunteer leaders increase our potential for meeting the challenges of today and tomorrow's families. Those whose knowledge and imagination give them the ability to foresee a bright, new world, envision life and learning beyond the comprehension of most of us. If we are going to teach families about life today and their world tomorrow, we must look ahead with increased concerns for poverty, with increased awareness of needed improvements in physical and social environment; increased family demands for help in using resources; increased need for more adequate housing and many other pressing problems.

We must cooperate with our total staff and other agencies in an effort to give families the opportunity to develop and prepare themselves for tomorrow, not only vocationally, but more important they must be given a chance to grow individually, (each family member), creatively and freely.

This helping relationship does not belong to the professional; it belongs to caring people.

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EVALUATION - RESEARCH
DESIGN - METHODOLOGY

AN EVALUATION OF THE MARYMOUNT COLLEGE COOPERATIVE EXPERIENTIAL EDUCATION PROGRAM*

Gloria Kenny, Marymount College

I. HISTORY:

In the Spring of 1970 a "parallel plan," credit-bearing Cooperative Experiential Education Program was introduced at Marymount College, a small Liberal Arts College for women. In this parallel plan, the student combines off-campus work with on-campus study. She works 2 days a week per semester for the equivalent of two course credits at the same time that she takes two other courses on campus.

This approach was soon complemented by an "alternating plan" Cooperative Experiential Education Program. According to this plan, the student alternates her off-campus work with her on-campus study, for a full-term, a summer term, or a January Interim. (The course credit varies according to the length of the Co-op assignment).

Every effort has been made to integrate this practical experience with academic theory. The College provides an on-campus mentor for every fifteen students. This mentor does career counseling, ensures that the placement lives up to the job description, visits the job site to observe the Co-op student, holds conferences with the job supervisor, and meets with students in evening seminars.

Thus, the overall goal of the program is to enhance the classroom study of the student at the same time that it helps her identify her long-range career goals. As a secondary goal, the aim of the program is to assist the student in locating employment after graduation.

The positive response to the program and the ever-increasing enrollment indicated that the goals of the program were being met. The current study was undertaken as a joint effort by Gloria Kenny, Program Director, and William Alwell of the Bureau of Occupational Education Research of the New York State Education Department, to determine whether or not this assumption was correct.

II. PURPOSE:

The purpose of the study was to determine the effectiveness of the Marymount Co-op Program based on the following criteria:

a. Differences in percent of employment between graduates who had been in the Co-op Program and those who had not.

*Study funded by Title IV-D funds.

b. Differences in salary between the same two groups.

c. Differences in job satisfaction between the same two groups.

d. For those who had been in the Co-op Program, the relationship between their Co-op assignment and the securing of employment.

e. For those who had been in the Co-op Program, the relationship between their current employment and their Co-op assignment.

III. PROCEDURE:

Questionnaires were sent to all graduates of two class years, 1973 and 1974, to assess these five areas of concern. A follow-up questiomaire was sent a month after the first mailing to all those who did not respond. Each graduate was assigned a number to ensure anonymity.

IV. RESULTS:

Of the 530 questionnaires sent, 254 were returned (47.9%). Of these, 69 had been involved in the Co-op Program (48.6%) and 185 had not (47.7%). Table 1 about here.

In terms of both the total response and the specific response according to each category, the samples represented approximately half of the students who received the questionnaire. The similar percentage of response of Co-op and NonCo-op graduates emphasizes that each sample is equally representative of its total population. This total sample, therefore, is considered a representative one on which to evaluate the differences between the two groups.

The first area to be examined concerned the comparative percentage of employment of the two groups, i.e., were more Co-op students employed after graduation than NonCo-op students? (Figures are given in Table 2). Table 2 about here.

A test for significance of the difference between two proportions was applied, which yielded a t of 1.40. This is not significant at the .05 level. Therefore, the 7% higher rate of employment for Co-op students cannot be considered as statistically significant.

The next area to be examined was the differences in salary between the same two groups. Table 3 about here.

A test for the significance of the difference between the mean scores was then applied. Because the sample sizes were different, an F ratio test was done to check for the homogeneity of variances of the groups. Because these variances were significantly different, a separate variance t model formula was applied as suggested by Popham (1967). This yielded a t of 4.10. This is significant at the .01 level. Thus, it can be unequivocally stated that the Co-op students after graduation earned a statistically significantly higher salary than the NonCo-op students.

The question of job satisfaction was then studied. The employed graduates had been asked to rank their level of job satisfaction on a scale ranging from 1 to 5, with 1 = very satisfied; 2 = satisfied; 3 = neutral; 4 = dissatisfied; and 5 = very dissatisfied.

Because the data represent an ordinal (rank-ordered) scale of measurement, in place of a t test for significance of the difference between two sample means, the median test based on chi square was applied. (Isaac and Michael, 1971). This test uses the median as a dividing point to form frequency categories and tests whether the frequencies observed above and below the median in the two samples deviate significantly from expected population frequencies. The results are presented in Table 4. Table 4 about here.

The X^2 of 6.53 is significant at the .025 level. Thus, it is clear that even though the combined median level of satisfaction is positive, there is a difference between the groups indicating that the Co-op graduates are more satisfied than the NonCo-op graduates in their current jobs.

The last two questions to be evaluated related only to those employed graduates who had been in the Co-op Program. They were asked, a) whether or not they considered their Co-op assignment of value in getting employment, and b) whether or not their present job was related to their Co-op placement.

Table 5 shows that 71.7% of the employed graduates who had been in the Co-op Program reported that their Co-op assignment had been of value to them in securing employment. Table 5 about here.

Table 6 shows that a little less than half of the employed graduates who had been in the Co-op Program saw their present jobs related to their Co-op placement. Table 6 about here.

V. INTERPRETATION:

In terms of the actual percentage of graduates employed, there does not seem to be a significant difference between Co-op and NonCo-op graduates.

On the other hand, the high level of significance of difference in salary between Co-op and NonCo-op graduates would seem to be a clear indication of the monetary drawing power of the Co-op assignment. Because this research was done in the Fall of 1975 for graduates of the classes of 1973 and 1974, these salaries would represent entry-level positions for the most part. This would suggest that the Co-op student begins work at a higher salary level than the NonCo-op student.

A follow-up study to see if this advantage is maintained will be undertaken in the future.

The comparative level of job satisfaction between the Co-op student and the NonCo-op student also yields a significant level of difference. It is encouraging to note that both groups, as an average, report favorable levels of job satisfaction. What the Co-op placement adds, it would appear, is that extra dimension which makes the employee "very satisfied" as opposed to "satisfied." The assumption might be made that this could be more than a minor distinction. People who are very satisfied tend to be more highly motivated and more productive than those who are merely satisfied.

The final two elements of the study can be evaluated together. Although a large majority of the Co-op graduates believe that their Co-op placement was instrumental in their finding employment, a little less than half believe that their current employment is directly related to their Co-op assignment. This would indicate that the value of Co-op is much stronger in terms of accumulating work experience than it is in assuring a directly related job. The experience of working and the evaluations by Co-op employers aided the students in locating employment, but only half of them are in jobs directly related to their Co-op placement. This may be a function of choice, i.e., the student may have discovered through her Co-op assignment that this career did not interest her and, therefore, she applied for other types of employment. It may also be a function of the unavailability of job options in her career choice area.

V. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS:

The Marymount College Cooperative Experiential Education Program was analyzed to determine if it successfully met its goals of helping the student identify her long-range goals and assisting her in obtaining employment after graduation. Graduates from the classes of 1973 and 1974 were compared based on whether or not they had participated in the Co-op Program as an undergraduate. Five particular areas were studied: differences in percentage employed, differences in mean salary, differences in job satisfaction, and the Co-op students' perceived value of the Co-op assignment in terms of a) obtaining employment and b) its relationship to their current job.

The results show that the percentage of Co-op students employed was not significantly higher than that of the Non-Co-op students. However, their mean salary and level of job satisfaction were significantly higher. In addition, almost half the Co-ops report that they are currently in jobs related to their Co-op placement, and a large majority report that their Co-op placement was helpful in securing employment after graduation.

It is planned to further use the data in the development of a model to evaluate the effects of Cooperative Education programs.

Therefore, it is the conclusion of this study that the Marymount College Cooperative Experiential Education Program has been successful in meeting its aims and objectives.

Remarks prepared for presentation at the Conference on the Roles of Colleges and Universities in Volunteerism, Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University, Blacksburg, Virginia, April 25-29, 1977.

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Table 1

Percentage of Co-op Versus NonCo-op Students Responding to Questionnaire

	Number Responding	Total Number of Graduates	Percentage Responding
Co-op	69	142	48.6
NonCo-op	185	388	47.7
Total	254	530	47.9

Table 2

Percentage of Co-op Versus NonCo-op Students Employed

	Number Employed	Total Number	Percentage Employed	
Co-op	60	69	87	t= 1.40
NonCo-op	148	185	80	N.S.

Table 3

Mean Salaries of Co-op Versus NonCo-op Students

	Mean Salary	
Co-op	$9,595	t = 4.10
NonCo-op	$8,434	$p < .01$

Table 4

Number of Scores at or Above and Below the Combined Median

	Co-op Graduates	NonCo-op Graduates	Total
At or Above Median	52	101	153
Below Median	8	47	55
Total	60	148	208

$\underline{X}^2 = 6.53$ @ 1 df. $p < .025$

Table 5

Value of Co-op Assignment in Securing Employment Expressed in Terms of Percent

	Number of Employed Co-ops	
Yes	43	(71.7%)
No	17	(28.3%)
Total	60	(100%)

Table 6

Relationship of Current Job to Co-op Assignment Expressed in Terms of Percent

	Number of Employed Co-ops	
Yes	29	(48.3%)
No	31	(51.7%)
Total	60	(100%)

EVALUATION IN THE VOLUNTARY SECTOR
PROBLEMS, PROSPECTS, AND EMERGING ROLES

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INTRODUCTION

Within the past decade a burst of interest in policy analysis has reflected our society's growing concern with managing its social problems. Evaluation research, as a component of policy analysis, is increasingly being looked to as a facilitator of more systematic and rational policies and programs. This paper will present an overview of the possible contributions that evaluation research can make in the voluntary sector. By discussing both the strengths and weaknesses of the evaluative process, we hope that an appreciation of its usefulness as well as a realistic conception of its limitations will emerge.

Exactly what is evaluation research? According to Carol Weiss it is "the measuring of effectiveness of a program against the goals it set out to accomplish as a means of contributing to subsequent decision-making about the program and improving future programming" (1972:4). The contribution to subsequent decision-making and the improvement of future programming distinguish evaluation from assessment, which is generally limited to a review of performance against planned goals and objectives.

Because of the diversity of social programs, evaluation research can and must take different forms. "Programs vary in scope, size, duration, clarity, specificity of program input, complexity of goals and innovativeness" (Weiss, 1972:4). However, regardless of the evaluative approach deemed appropriate for a particular program, the overall focus of evaluation research is to provide decision-makers with objective data to clarify the consequences or impact of a range of programmatic decisions. It can sharpen a decision-maker's understanding of the realities upon which program and policy decisions must ultimately be made.

Evaluation research may be seen as a component in the development of guidance systems in what Etzioni (1968) has called "the active society." The modern age, as Mannheim (1949) has noted, sees the trends of "fundamental democratization" and "increasing interdependence" proceeding apace, and planning (to which evaluation is one important contributor) is crucial in allowing the clarification of goals and the definition of appropriate means to the achievement of those goals.

Contemporary planning theorists (e.g. Davidoff and Reiner, 1962; Gans, 1968) note that a full planning process requires the clarification and setting of goals, the definition of means appropriate to them, and the linkage of the goals and means to appropriate professional technique. We contend that the same three processes are required for full evaluation, which we see consisting of the differing but interdependent levels of operation, function, and program. The operating level involves the efficient and effective use of people, materials, and facilities. The functional level redefines people, materials and facilities into activities or functions.

Evaluation at this level focuses on the degree to which program goals and objectives have been achieved by organizational means and processes, or what Mannheim calls "functional rationality." The programmatic level analyzes the actual program impact and "success" in terms of both the degree to which stated goals have been met and the clarity and utility of those goals themselves. It thus raises centrally the problem of "substantive rationality" as Mannheim identifies it, and considers the program's success or failure in terms of its full organizational setting in which the consideration of possible alternative program directions is explicit.

The direct relationship between the two sets of distinctions may be viewed as shown below:

Levels of evaluation	Focus of evaluation is on:		
	Techniques	Means	Goal-setting
Operational.............	X		
Functional..............	X	X	
Programmatic............	X	X	X

Thus, we hold the position that full evaluation is best seen as a method of planning which involves the specification and review of goals, and the assessment of the degree to which organizational means contribute to the achievement of goals--all set in the context of an appropriate professional research methodology.

In the private and public sectors evaluation research is widely used to stimulate more productive and effective programming. In the voluntary sector, on the other hand, the potential of evaluation research has not been nearly as well or as fully utilized. As Scheier and Cooper note, "Program evaluation is . . . an extremely 'luxurious necessity.' We need it, but we often can't afford it, either time-wise or money-wise." Faced with what they identify as a "necessary impossibility," Scheier and Cooper note that "program people must frequently choose to do nothing--except state their faith. In an assemblage of directors of volunteer services, the question, Have you evaluated your volunteer program? rarely draws more than one out of ten hands" (Scheier and Cooper, 1975:2).

THE EVALUATION PROCESS: FRIEND OR FOE?

Evaluation is not only feared to be expensive in time and money, but it may also be feared for its potential impact on volunteer program development and delivery. At the operating and functional levels in organizations whose programs are dependent for their existence on volunteer workers, there may be a fear that the evaluation process will pose enough threat to the volunteer that he/she will discontinue working. In this case the preoccupation is with the survival of the program to the possible neglect of its over-all effectiveness. The attitude which characterizes this perspective is that the dependent organization or program should be grateful to have the volunteer and, therefore, should accept whatever the volunteer contributes regardless of how effectively it fits the program objectives.

Organizations with this perspective are actually doing their volunteer workers a disservice by focusing on a punitive and very narrow definition of evaluation. When the evaluation process looks at the organizational structure, it is not for the purpose of singling out particular individuals. Rather, the evaluator focuses on the internal networks within the organization as they influence program effectiveness. By obtaining concrete information on program goals (both implicit and explicit), standard criteria of operation, and assessments of program needs, the evaluation process provides a more rational structural framework within which the volunteer can work. This in turn gives the volunteer valuable feedback as to the program's progress as well as an increased sense of individual purpose within the process. The volunteer is likely to be more motivated to continue his/her participation when there is a clear perception of direction. Evaluation research by systematically identifying program objectives, criteria for measuring progress toward the objectives, and gathering unbiased program impact data can provide this direction.

Hatry, Winnie, and Fisk (1973) in their program evaluation handbook suggest the following questions designed to help identify relevant objectives, evaluation criteria, and clientele groups:

1. What is intended to be changed by the program, both immediate and long run? How would the program manager know if the program was working? What evidence would be accepted as indicating success?
2. What are possible side effects, both immediate and long run?
3. Who is the target of the program? What types of people? Is the community as a whole affected either directly or indirectly? Who else might be affected by the program?
4. What would be the consequences if the program were eliminated completely? What would happen to the citizens in the community? Who would complain and why? Who would be glad and why?

While these questions focus on the programmatic level of the evaluation process, sets of questions should also be directed at the operating and functional levels if the data derived from the research is added to the knowledge of organizational behavior.

GOAL SPECIFICATION: MAKING THEM EXPLICIT

Another reason for the general lack of evaluation research in the voluntary sector relates directly to the objectives of some voluntary organizations. There seems to be a tendency in some (certainly not all) of these organizations to focus on whether they are "doing good" as opposed to whether they are doing what they set out to do.[1] Although in this day and age "doing good" has much to recommend it, open-ended program goals are often not as conducive to insightful action as more specific, measurable goals.

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[1] Van Til in his Keynote address to this conference notes that the term "volunteering" implies not only the concept of the individual action, but often the intent to advance the welfare of others as well.

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There is also a tendency for a program manager to believe that the value of his/her program cannot be measured. While there are limitations on what can actually be measured or quantified, there are at least partial and practical means available for measuring program impact. Difficulty in measuring certain criteria need not imply that the evaluation of the criteria be rejected. Qualitative, subjective types of evaluation criteria (such as use of ratings, rankings, and interviews) can be extremely useful and appropriate if systematically carried out (Hatry *et al*," 1973:32).

For any program's impact (both positive and negative) to be measured there must exist explicit goals and objectives. The specification of goals is an extremely complex task.[2] When goals are vague (as they often intentionally are) it is difficult to demonstrate whether or not they have been met and there is less pressure of accountability. Explicit goals can also be controversial. Ambiguous and sometimes contradictory goals can function as a means of avoiding conflict within the organization. The difficulty of program decision-makers to come to a consensus on program goals makes broadly general goals a seemingly realistic way of placating divergent perspectives. Unfortunately, however, overly general objectives can result in problems in conceptualizing and implementing the program as well as problems in measuring its impact. The program goals held by individuals must be synthesized with organizational goals if effectiveness is to be maximized (Wilson, 1976:79). One generally accepted function of the program evaluator is to aid in the specification of measurable, usable goals. Standards of judgment can then be set. The policy process becomes more systematic.

EVALUATION RESULTS: THE END PRODUCT IS JUST A BEGINNING

The results of evaluation research do not always point to clear directions for program improvement. Nevertheless, systematic evaluation can serve as a guide for making decisions concerning program retention, modification, expansion, or elimination. It can be a useful tool (although not the only tool) in rationalizing the decision-making process by providing objective information. Resource allocation commitments can be made from a better informed position; this includes commitment choices within a major program area as well as choices among major program areas.

Even when the evaluator is only able to indicate that the program is not achieving the desired results, the exposure of the inadequacies can have positive benefits. For example, an evaluator can detect internal organizational problems which may be undermining program effects. Contrasting ideological commitments, political biases, and misperceptions of short-term and/or long-term goals can be ascertained. By providing periodic feedback of information to program staff, these sources of friction can be reduced or eliminated, resulting in higher levels of internal commitment. For the volunteer, this more purposeful commitment increases the probability of continued involvement and can even encourage higher quality participation.

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[2] Marlene Wilson (1976, ch. 5) describes a system for testing objectives which she terms "SMAC": specific, measurable, achievable, and compatible.

Of course, when a program is shown not to be having the desired impact the "fault" is not necessarily the staff's. Problems in the recipient population, within the total community, within factions in the community, or between any of them in combination can also be responsible. Evaluation research explores all the aspects both internal and external, including the interrelationships.

Evaluation research, while useful to policy-makers, lodges within evident limits. Under ideal circumstances where political or subjective considerations do not intervene and where evaluation research methodology has been refined to a high degree of precision, evaluation research could assume the role of omnipotent guide to policy development. However, the policy process (and the accompanying evaluation) does not take place in such a vacuum. The evaluative evidence competes with other influential factors in the policy arena:

> The programs with which the evaluator deals are not neutral, antiseptic, laboratory-type entities. They emerge from the rough and tumble of political support, opposition, and bargaining. Attached to them are the reputations of legislative sponsors, the careers of administrators, the jobs of program staff, and the expectations of clients. The support of these groups coalesces around the program, but the counter pressures that were activated during its development remain active and the program remains vulnerable to interference from legislatures, bureaucracies, interest groups, professional guilds, and the media . . . Accomplishing the goals for which the program was set up is not unimportant, but it is not the only, the largest, or usually the most immediate of the concerns on the administrator's docket (Weiss, 1973:38).

In addition to the above obstacles to the utilization of evaluation research, potential weaknesses of the evaluation research process itself must also be understood. In her article (1973) lamenting the lack of accountability of evaluations, Selma Mushkin, Director of the Public Services Laboratory and an economist at Georgetown University, describes several weak points in evaluation research:

1. the impact of one program is difficult to isolate from that of others; external events may also intervene;

2. data are frequently inadequate--either too complex or too simplistic for the purpose;

3. knowledge of how long it takes to produce or measure a public product is thin;

4. evaluation studies are selective in the criteria they use--some criteria are selected for study, others are set aside--this can bias the evaluation in a particular direction. Peripheral effects may be neglected;

5. evaluators are people, too, and can have a vested interest in showing there was a real need for the evaluation;

6. evaluators tend not to sufficiently safeguard their statements from misinterpretation. This poses a definite threat to programs when a seemingly negative evaluation can signal the program's demise.

Mushkin's cautionary note emphasizes the importance of keeping the relation of evaluation to policy and program decision-making at a realistic level.

It should be emphasized here that while there are valid arguments both pro and con on the relative value of evaluation research, we believe that as long as policy-makers are aware of its possible shortcomings, this type of research has much to offer in rationalizing the policy process in the voluntary sector as in other sectors. Judiciously applied, evaluation research provides valuable input into the decision-making process.

WHO SHOULD EVALUATE?

Having discussed the subjects of the evaluation (the individuals, paid and unpaid, at all organizational levels; and all aspects of the program)[3] the issue becomes who should do the evaluating. The basic decision involves whether to use "inside" or "outside" evaluators. There are advantages and disadvantages to both (Caro, 1969). The inside evaluator is likely to have more detailed organizational knowledge. This familiarity with the system can not only save valuable time, but also can provide access to information which might tend to be withheld from an outside evaluator. Also, if there is a need for continued research beyond the formal evaluation period, the inside evaluator is in a position to conduct it.

However, the inside evaluator is likely to be more susceptible to attempts to manipulate him/her by program managers. As the researcher, in the course of the evaluation, moves up the organizational hierarchy, he/she may feel intimidated by administrators in power positions. Since aspects of evaluation research can be seen as a series of interpersonal relationships (Argyris, 1958), if the researcher is to obtain the most objective data, he/she must not feel threatened by those persons in positions of power in the organization.

The outside evaluator generally has the advantage of avoiding the internal status problems facing an inside evaluator. However, the disadvantage of this outsider status is the potential threat he/she may pose to those within the organization. The personal impact of the outside evaluator on the "subjects" (management, employees, volunteers, etc.) must be non-threatening if maximum cooperation is to be obtained. Moreover, the predispositions of the "subjects" to report valid information will be a function of the extent to which they perceive the researcher and the evaluation as meaningful and need-filling (Argyris, 1958:35). The outside evaluator has further to go in proving him/herself than the insider who is not a totally unknown quantity.

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[3] Wilson (1976:89) describes a set of criteria for evaluating a volunteer program formulated by Robert McCreech which appears in a booklet titled "Let's Measure Up: A Set of Criteria for Evaluating a Volunteer Program."

The outside evaluator is generally considered to be more objective in his/her approach. From the position of "outsider" the evaluator is better able to spot and point out perceived inadequacies, since he/she is not as likely to have the organizational or programmatic blind-spot which can arise from familiarity.

Both the inside and the outside evaluators may focus their attention on operational, functional, and programmatic levels. And both, if they are to conduct full evaluations, rather than simply engaging in monitoring or assessment, will need to attend to all three levels. We have noted above that the inside evaluator is subject to co-optation and control, and we perceive that his/her effectiveness is most directly subject to compromise at the programmatic level. Thus, we agree with Wilson that the choice of an outside consultant is "especially useful when the program is having difficulty," "when Board, staff, and volunteers are in disagreement" (Wilson, 90).

In either choice, internal or external, the role must be skillfully played by qualified evaluation researchers if identifiable impact on policy formulation and program development and implementation is to be made (cf. Van Til, 1975).

CONCLUSION: ROLES FOR THE VOLUNTEER EVALUATOR

Volunteer programs require comprehensive evaluation, and yet few such programs can or do avail themselves of it. We have argued in this paper that the common fears of programmatic evaluation are poorly grounded, but we cannot argue away the limited financial capacity of most volunteer programs to mount either internal or external programs of evaluative research upon themselves. To be sure, federally-funded programs provide an occasional lucrative evaluation contract, but most volunteer programs do not receive lavish financial support.

We suggest that the need for volunteer program evaluation might be met, at least in part, by the expansion of the role of "volunteer evaluator," and its acceptance by young academics, in particular. While this role, like other volunteer roles, is not directly rewarding financially, it does provide the other incentives often seen as unique to volunteering: autonomy, meaning, and work-related competency development. Young academics who volunteer to assist a program in its evaluation will not only participate in an ongoing social process of significance, they will also extend their own social and professional networks in ways that may be of ultimate career benefit--in terms of future opportunities for (paid) evaluation consultancies, access to data-bases for scholarly publications, and extended integration into the social and political process of our age.

Academics wishing to develop this role might do well to register with the volunteer consultants' listings maintained by Volunteers in

Technical Assistance and the Association of Voluntary Action Scholars,[4] and make known their own interest in direct contact with voluntary agencies in their own communities. Out of their own needs for competency and reputation-development, and the programs' needs for quality evaluation at low cost, may emerge a new volunteer role of significance.

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[4] Volunteers in Technical Assistance, 3706 Rhode Island Avenue, Mt. Rainier, Maryland 20822; Association of Voluntary Action Scholars, Box G-55, Boston College, Chestnut Hill, Massachusetts 02167.

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THE PRIVATE BUSINESS SECTOR AS A VOLUNTEER RESOURCE BASE

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PURPOSE AND OBJECTIVES

The purpose of this study was to determine whether or not local private businesses were currently providing resources to community organizations. A second purpose was to examine those which did provide resources to community organizations and determine the critical factors relating to resource securement.

The following objectives were identified for the study:

1. To determine the types of resources a business prefers to provide to community organizations.
2. To determine the amount of resources (measured in dollars) that is provided to community organizations.
3. To determine if written proposals are required prior to providing support.
4. To determine the best times of the year to make a support request.
5. To determine factors a business considers prior to making a support commitment.
6. To identify the individuals (job roles) in a business to be approached in requesting resources.
7. To identify the types of persons a business prefers to be approached by in requesting support.
8. To determine the amount of advance notice a business requires before granting support.
9. To determine the types of program involvement, follow-up action and recognition a business prefers once support has been granted.

For purposes of this study, the following definitions were used:

Business Enterprise:

A business organization under single management which may include one or more outlets.

Financial Resources:

Providing of monies in the form of cash, check, grants, etc.

Human Resources:

Providing employees to volunteer as leaders, resource people, consultants, committee members, etc.

Services and Facilities:

Providing of physical support such as meeting rooms, display areas, building space, printing service, etc.

Supplies and Equipment:

Providing hardware and software items.

METHODS USED IN THE STUDY

Population: The population studied was businesses located in urban Fairfax County, Virginia. A random sample of 105 businesses were identified to be interviewed. Of the 105 businesses selected, seven refused to participate, seven were no longer in business or had moved from the area and four could not provide the necessary information. The final sample consisted of 87.

Description of the population:

Years in the area: Approximately one-half of the businesses (45 per cent) had been at the present location for five years or less; 30 per cent had been in the area for over ten years.

Number of locations (outlets): A majority (58 per cent) of the businesses had only one location, 25 per cent operated between two and ten locations and 17 per cent had more than ten locations.

Number of employees: The number of employees in each business ranged from two to over 250. Approximately two-thirds (65 per cent) of the businesses had ten or less employees; only six per cent employed 250 or more persons.

Persons interviewed: All individuals interviewed were full time employees of the business. Sixty-two per cent had been with the same business five or more years. Of the 87 businesses, 36 (41 per cent) were managed by owners. Fifteen per cent were managed by women.

Research instrument: The instrument used to collect data was a specially developed interview schedule. Prior to administration, the instrument was field-tested.

Data collection: Personal interviews were conducted at each of the selected locations. All individuals interviewed were in a management or supervisory role. Interviewers were both professionals and volunteers.

Data analysis: Data from the interview schedule were computer processed, using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) Program.

PRESENTATION OF FINDINGS

Business as a Source of Support

Organizations supported. Analysis of data from 87 businesses indicated that

92 per cent were currently providing resources to community organizations. The organizations mentioned by each business were assigned to one of the following categories: (1) school programs, (2) church groups, (3) youth organizations, (4) civic clubs, (5) service organizations, (6) united fund and, (7) other.

(Table I Here)

A large majority (85 per cent) of businesses did provide resources to youth organizations. Over one-half (54 per cent) provided resources to school programs while 30 per cent supported united fund, 30 per cent service organizations, 31 per cent church groups.

Resources provided. Each business was requested to provide information concerning: (1) their preference in type of resources committed to a community organization, (2) the actual type of resources the business did commit, and (3) the value of the resources provided as measured in dollars. Resources were classified into four areas: human, financial, services and facilities, and supplies and equipment.

One-half (50 per cent) of the businesses ranked financial support as their first preference in providing support to an organization. Sixteen per cent indicated that their first preference was to contribute supplies and equipment. Six per cent selected human resources as a first preference.

(Table II Here)

Further analysis found that those businesses which expressed a preference in the type of support they provide, prefer to give financial resources rather than human, supplies and equipment or services and facilities types of resources.*

Actual resources provided. Although 71 per cent of the businesses indicated that financial support was their first or second preference of providing resources to community organizations, 98 per cent of the businesses providing resources to community organizations were providing financial support. Sixty per cent of the businesses were providing human resources while less than one-half provided services and facilities or supplies and equipment.

Value of resources. It was found that a majority (57 per cent) of the businesses contributed financial resources in amounts of 101-1000 dollars. Human resources were contributed in the amount of 26 to 100 dollars. Thirteen per cent of the businesses provided 1000 dollars or more of financial support to community organizations.

Since a large majority of the businesses providing resources to community organizations did so through financial or human support, further analysis of these resources was necessary. Value of support provided by businesses was observed in relation to (1) form of business ownership (2) number of employees in business and (3) years business has been in the area.

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*A chi square of 41.834 with 3 degrees of freedom was found which was significant at the .001 level.

Form of business ownership. Seventy-eight per cent of the businesses gave 100 dollars or less in human resources. It was found that more corporations provide financial resources in amounts greater than 100 dollars than amounts less than 100 dollars. Of those businesses which were not corporations, the number that gave less than 100 dollars in financial support (16) was approximately the same as the number which gave more than 100 dollars (14).

Number of employees. There was a statistically significant relationship between the number of employees in a business and the amount of financial resource provided. As shown in Table III those businesses with more than ten employees, provide financial support in amounts greater than 100 dollars more than in amounts less than 100 dollars. Number of employees in relation to amount of human resources provided was significant in that human resources were more available from businesses with more than ten employees than businesses with ten or less employees.

(Table III about Here)

Years in Area. It was found that the more years a business was in the area, the more support it provided. (Sign. at .014)

CONSIDERATIONS IN RECEIVING BUSINESS SECTOR RESOURCES

Who to approach. Respondents were asked to identify the level of management where policy decisions granting support to community organizations was determined. A majority (65 per cent) of the businesses determined policy at the local level. Twenty-eight per cent identified corporate officers as the policy makers. Boards of directors was mentioned by six per cent of the respondents as the individuals who determined policy.

Ninety per cent of the respondents identified themselves as the individuals in their business who had authority to approve support requests from community organizations.

Fourty-two per cent of those decision makers were owners; another 42 per cent were managers. Twenty-four per cent of the managers qualified their position on granting of funds, indicating they were permitted only limited authority in providing support to community organizations. They had to follow a budget which included funds for contributions, donations etc. However, some businesses grant more than 25 dollars per organization per request. Larger amounts of money and other resources were available but approval for these were made at a higher level of management.

Who should approach. A majority (53 per cent) of the businesses preferred that a volunteer representing the soliciting organization approach them for support. Thirty-eight per cent indicated they desired to be approached by a peer.

When to approach. An attempt was made to identify times of the year when best to approach a business to request support. The majority (69 per cent) of the businesses begin their fiscal year in January; 12 per cent begin in June and the remaining 19 per cent did indicate that they prefer to be approached at the end of the fiscal year.

A majority (69 per cent) of the businesses did not have a preference in times of year to request resource support. However, 19 per cent did indicate that they prefer to be approached at the end of the current fiscal year for the next year's budget.

Seventy-eight per cent of the businesses interviewed did not require advance notice or required only one week's notice prior to granting resources to community organizations. Thirty-four per cent preferred one week notice. Only seven per cent required a notice of one to three months prior to granting resources to community organizations.

Table IV shows resources provided and the requirement of advance notice. There was a significance in relation to human resources, however. Businesses which provide human resources prefer advance notice no matter what amount of resource is provided.

(Table IV about here)

FACTORS DETERMINING SUPPORT

Respondents were asked to indicate factors which they considered prior to granting support. Four considerations were identified by a majority of the respondents. The factor attracting the largest number of responses (88 per cent) was "purpose of request" as shown in Table V.

(Table V about here)

This was followed by "economic climate of business" (82 per cent) and "credibility of requesting organizations" (69 per cent). Only 16 per cent considered "benefit to employee family" as a factor.

Many respondents added that the "approach used by the individual making a request "was an important consideration in the business's decision whether to support or not. One manager said, "Do not ask for money. Do ask for better equipment, more space...talk about the 'something', not about money." Similar feelings were expressed by several other businesses. The approach of selling an idea or program will be more successful than just requesting money from a business.

Figure 1 indicates those factors the respondents thought were most important in granting support to an organization. A variety of opinions are apparent. "Purpose of request" was selected most important by 29 per cent, while "economic climate of business" was most important to 27 per cent. Tax exemption status of receiving organization was not mentioned once as a most important factor.

(Figure 1 about here)

When asked to indicate the next most important factor, again "purpose" received the largest number of responses. However, 26 per cent indicated that "credibility of organization" was to be considered.

Written proposals as an approach technique were not required by a majority (54 per cent) of the businesses. However, 46 per cent of the businesses said they did prefer a written proposal from a requesting organization. It would appear that those businesses which provide resources in amounts greater than 100 dollars require a written proposal more than those who provide financial resources of less than 100 dollars.

ONCE SUPPORT HAS BEEN GRANTED

Respondents were asked to identify the types of recognition or exposure they preferred from an organization once the business has committed support. A high percentage (81 per cent) indicated they desire some form of recognition for their supporting efforts. The most common form of recognition preferred (48 per cent) was "letters of appreciation" from the benefiting organization or individual. Nineteen per cent of the businesses expected no recognition or exposure.

Seventy-three per cent of the businesses did not expect any type of follow-up action from an organization once support was granted. Two (five per cent) of the businesses which provided over 1000 dollars did require a financial report from the sponsored organization.

Analysis of the business's involvement with an organization once support had been granted revealed that a large majority (79 per cent) did not want to be involved other than by advertisement or promotion of business.

CONCLUSION

Significantly, financial support was the first preference of businesses providing support. Also significant were the relationships between the amount of financial support provided and form of business organization, number of employees and years business had been in the area.

Businesses tend to provide financial support in amounts over 100 dollars more than amounts less than 100 dollars. Businesses with more than ten employees provide financial support in amounts greater than 100 dollars more than amounts less than 100 dollars. Businesses that have been in the area over ten years provide more financial support (and in amounts of 100 dollars or more) than businesses which have been in the area less than ten years.

There was also a significant relationship between the type of person representing an organization and who the business prefers to be approached by to request resources.

From the descriptive part of the study, the following conclusions were drawn:

1. Resources for community organizations are available from the local business sector.
2. Local businesses (regardless of size) are willing to provide resources to community organizations.
3. Most local business enterprises prefer to provide financial and human resources to community organizations.
4. Most business decisions involving the contribution of resources to organizations are made by the local management.
5. Most businesses prefer that volunteers representing the soliciting organization make the approach requesting resources.
6. Most businesses require no more than a week's notice prior to granting support.
7. Certain factors are important in a business's decision to provide support to an organization. These include: (a) purpose of request, (b) economic climate of business (c) credibility of requesting organization and (d) mutual interest of the giving and receiving organization.
8. Although written proposals are not required by most businesses they should be considered in developing a resource development program.
9. Some form of recognition is expected by a business once it has committed support to an organization.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the major findings of the study, the following recommendations for further study are made:

1. This study should be replicated by other researchers and conducted in both rural and urban counties to determine reliability.
2. A follow-up study should be conducted to investigate other possible factors relating to the obtaining of resources from local businesses.
3. A study should be conducted to determine the relationship between selected criteria (i.e. type of business, volume of business, etc.) and the amount of support provided.
4. Other studies are needed to investigate resources available from unions and like organizations.

TABLE I

BUSINESSES PROVIDING RESOURCES TO COMMUNITY ORGANIZATIONS

Type of Organization	Number	Per cent
Youth Organizations	68	85.0
School Groups	43	53.7
Civic Clubs	36	45.0
Church Groups	25	31.3
Service Organizations	24	30.0
United Funds	24	30.0
Other	28	35.0

N = 80

TABLE II

BUSINESS PREFERENCE IN PROVIDING RESOURCES TO COMMUNITY ORGANIZATIONS

Forms of Resource Support	Business Preference			
	First Choice		Second Choice	
	No.	Per cent	No.	Per cent
Human	5	6	18	29
Financial	40	50	17	28
Services & Facilities	12	15	4	7
Supplies & Equipment	13	16	15	25
No Preference	10	13	7	11
Total	80	100.0	61	100.0

TABLE III

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN NUMBER OF EMPLOYEES AND AMOUNT OF SUPPORT PROVIDED BY SELECTED FAIRFAX COUNTY BUSINESS

	Human[a]				Financial[b]			
	0–100 dollars		100 + dollars		0–100 dollars		100 + dollars	
Number of Employees	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent
1–10 N=51	44	55.0	7	8.8	22	27.6	29	36.3
over 10 N=29	18	22.8	11	13.7	4	5.0	25	31.2
Total	26	77.5	18	26.5	26	32.5	54	67.5

N=80 a = X^2 = 5.1142 with 1 degree of freedom Probability = .0225

b=X^2 = 6.4523 with 1 degree of freedom Probability = .0105

TABLE IV

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TYPE AND AMOUNT OF RESOURCE PROVIDED BY SELECTED FAIRFAX COUNTY BUSINESS AND REQUIREMENT FOR ADVANCE NOTICE

	0–100 dollars		100 + dollars		0–100 dollars		100 + dollars	
Require Advance Notice	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent
Yes	15	34	11	25	10	13	13	17
No	11	25	7	16	34	44	20	26
Total	26	59	18	42	44	57	33	43

a=X^2 = 3.365 with 1 degree of freedom Probability = .06

b=X^2 = 1.768 with 1 degree of freedom Probability = not significant

TABLE V

FACTORS CONSIDERED BY FAIRFAX COUNTY BUSINESSES PRIOR TO COMMITTING RESOURCES TO COMMUNITY ORGANIZATIONS

Factors to be Considered	Business Considered Number	Per cent
Purpose of Request	73	88
Economic Climate of Business	68	82
Credibility of Requesting Organization	58	69
Mutual Interest of Giving and Receiving Organizations	43	52
Psychological Climate of Business	33	40
Tax Exemption Status of Receiving Organization	15	18
Benefit to Employee Family	13	16
Other Factors	21	25

N=83

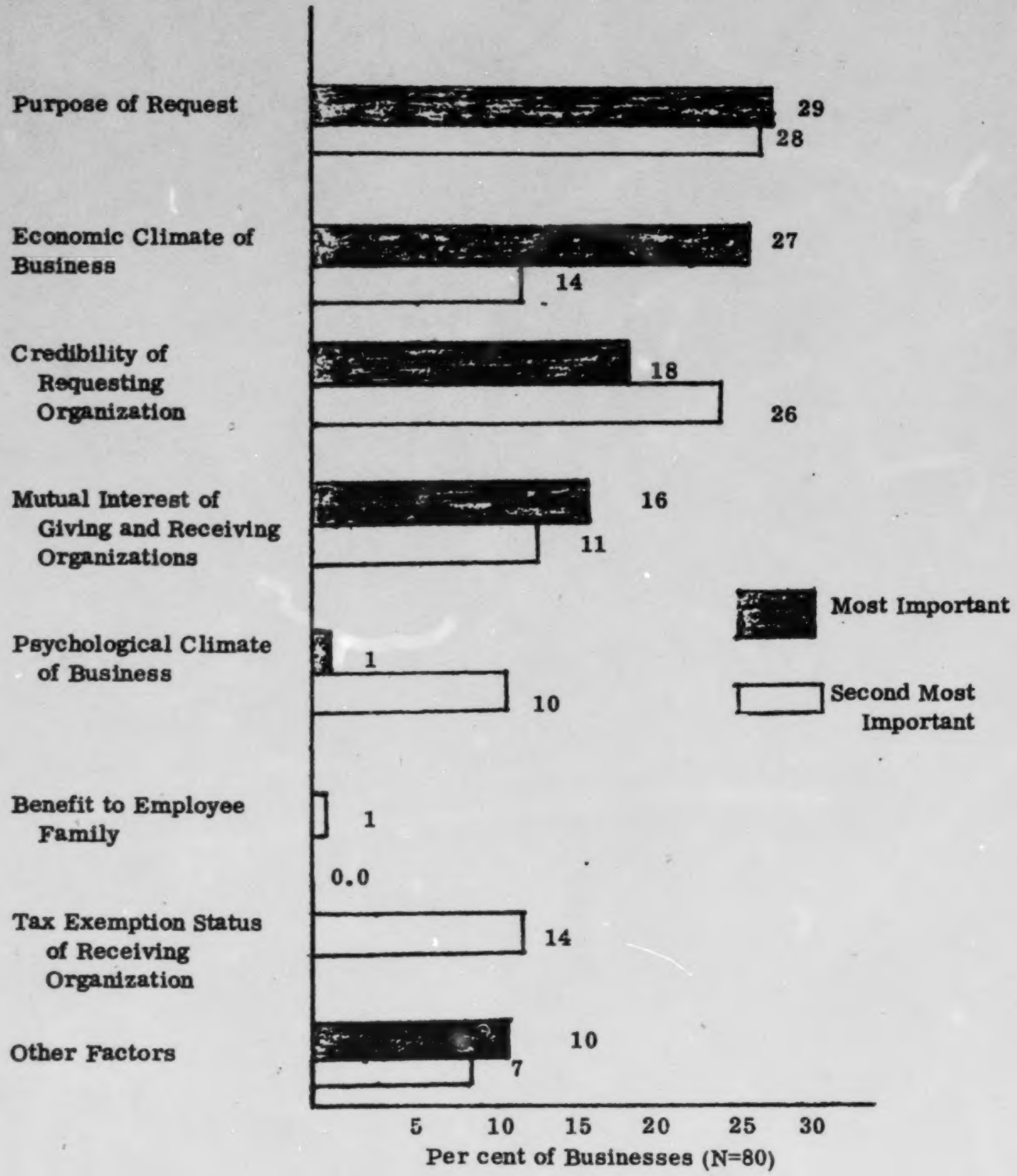

FIGURE I

FACTORS BUSINESSES CONSIDER PRIOR TO GRANTING RESOURCES TO COMMUNITY ORGANIZATIONS

ON THE INTERFACE BETWEEN THE VOLUNTARY AND GOVERNMENTAL SECTORS

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Voluntary action always takes place in a political and governmental context, and may have both political causes and political effects. The individual decisions to cooperate with voluntary efforts as well as the effectiveness of those efforts can be conditioned or even determined by the structure of the political institutions confronting social actors. Similarly, the operation of political institutions can be influenced by their interaction with voluntary efforts occurring in the society.

While much scholarly attention is focused on the social context of voluntary action, the interface of the voluntary and governmental sectors is less extensively investigated. This paper explores the logical relationship between these two spheres of activity in an effort to suggest avenues of empirical inquiry in this area that could lead to a more productive relationship between voluntary and governmental efforts, and to a more adequate understanding of volunteerism itself. It develops the theme stated above by asking first how the organization of government institutions can facilitate or inhibit citizens' decisions to take part in voluntary collective effort, and then how voluntary efforts can influence the need for and costs of government action.

Throughout the paper, the focus will be on public services provided through local governments. This focus is useful for at least two reasons. First, it simplifies the discussion by calling attention to relationships which are less complex and more direct than many of those that exist between voluntarism and government action at the state or national level. Second, it centers discussion on a class of voluntary action which is immediately relevant to the lives of most Americans. Almost all citizens find themselves dependent on local governments for basic services that fundamentally shape the quality of life available to them. This paper is not about "the politics of volunteerism." It does not explore the system-maintaining or system-changing effects of voluntary action. It does not investigate the impact of volunteer effort on the distribution of values in the society. These are important issues, but are avoided, for the moment, in order to concentrate on the relationship between formal governmental structures and volunteerism. No effort is made to explain government structure or policy, or to describe the biases inherent in either those structures and policies, or in patterns of volunteerism. These are appropriate questions for other inquiries, but can not be addressed here.

THE LOGIC OF VOLUNTARISM

It is important to begin with a clear conceptualization of the process involved in volunteering so that the basis of the logical relationships to be described can be made explicit. Volunteerism may be usefully conceived of as a calculated response to opportunities in the actor's environment. For purposes of analysis we may assume that the calculation involved is "rational" to the extent that people are expected to weigh the anticipated costs and benefits of alternative actions, and to choose the alternative which offers the greatest net benefit (Stinson and Stam, 1976). In a situation in which information is costly to obtain, people may miscalculate or may act on inadequate information about relative costs and benefits, but it is assumed that they do make cost/benefits assessments (however crude) and that they attempt to allocate their limited resources so as to maximize the rewards they realize.

There are complexities in applying this concept to much voluntary action. In economics rationality is used to describe the behavior of self-interested individuals seeking to better their own material well being. Many voluntary efforts materially benefit people other than the volunteers. If rationality is narrowly defined it may seem inappropriate to this type of behavior. There is, however, no reason why people can not make rational calculations with respect to even altruistic behavior. In the first place, volunteers in "helping organizations" generally receive certain benefits from their participation (Smith and Reddy, 1973). These benefits may range from business contacts made as a result of charitable activities, through enjoyment of the comradship involved in the effort itself, to a sense of gratification at having fulfilled some perceived duty to do "community service." This being the case, people can assess the relative costs and benefits (broadly defined) associated with participation in alternative volunteer efforts and select those which promise to maximize whatever benefits they are pursuing. Secondly, potential volunteers may weigh the costs of alternative actions to themselves against the benefits others are likely to receive as a result. If the rewards they receive from voluntary action come from benefiting others, then the effectiveness of alternative programs and actions will influence those rewards.

From this perspective, volunteers may be viewed as choosing between activity and passivity, or among alternative courses of action on the basis of a perceived ratio of costs to effectiveness as they seek to "invest" their efforts in those programs that will produce the greatest results for themselves or others. For example, a citizen who is concerned with the problem of juvenile deliquency in the community may be confronted with a choice among three options: a) do nothing, b) join a voluntary program seeking to "redirect" area youth, or c) take part in a city-sponsored program of youth counciling and activities. If we can assume that this person has no overriding emotional commitment to act on the problem, his or her choice between inactivity and some effort to change the situation would be based on an evaluation of whether any of the available courses of action would make enough of a contribution to solving the problem to make it worth the costs it imposed. If there seemed to be little chance of changing the situation, and each course of action demanded a significant sacrifice from the citizen, there would be no incentive to voluntary action. If at least one course of action seems to allow the citizen to make a contribution which is worth the effort, he or she will have an incentive to volunteer. The choice between alternative forms of volunteerism would then be based on the same type of reasoning. For example, the citizen may choose to take part in the governmentally-sponsored program rather than the private program because he or she believed the particular methods employed by the private program to be less effective than those being relied on in the public program.

This is not an argument that volunteers are selfish and volunteer only when they see an opportunity for personal gain. Nor does it deny that for some persons voluntarism may be motivated by emotional factors like a desire for companionship or a felt need to "serve" others in order to do penance for perceived wrongdoing. The reasoning employed here is simply an argument that voluntarism is usefully analyzed as an instrumental action. People are assumed to volunteer in order to bring about change in their environment. Like other goal-directed actions, volunteering may be viewed as the product of a cost/benefit analysis by the actor.

If psychological factors are held constant, the choice both between action and inaction, and among alternative forms of voluntarism, in short, depends on the citizen's expectations about the effectiveness of his or her contribution in bringing about some desired state of affairs. It then becomes important to determine what impact the design of public policies and the structure of governmental institutions can have on the perceived efficacy of individuals' voluntary efforts to help others or solve community problems.

VOLUNTARISM AND PUBLIC SERVICES

The relationship between government and voluntarism can be most clearly worked out with respect to public services. The key concept in understanding the dynamics involved is that of "collective goods." Collective goods are goods and services which are jointly used by groups of persons under conditions where individuals can not reasonably be excluded from enjoyment of the good on the basis of their failure to contribute toward its production (Buchanan, 1968). Public services like street lighting and maintenance, education, police and fire protection and others represent collective goods for residents of specific neighborhoods. More diffuse structures of events like low crime rates and high environmental quality may also be considered collective goods. The citizens of any given community share a common interest in such goods.

Once a collective good is provided in an area, its benefits are available to all who live in or frequent the area. This quality of collective goods makes voluntary action to secure them for large groups highly uncertain. Mancur Olson (1965) stated the core of this problem when he demonstrated that individual members of large interest groups will have no incentive to make voluntary contributions toward the provision of collective goods for the group in the absence of selective benefits tied to their contribution. Individual contributions are unlikely to make any difference in the availability of collective goods for large groups, and individual failures to contribute toward provision of those goods are likely to go unnoticed. Since they can not be excluded from enjoying the benefits of collective goods that might be produced by other members' efforts, and can not insure provision of the goods through their own contribution, individuals will have an incentive to minimize their costs by withholding potential donations (Frohlich, Oppenheimer and Young, 1971).

Those who enjoy the benefits of collective goods without contributing toward their provision may be referred to as "freeriders." It is the availability of the freerider strategy which makes the provision of collective goods to large groups problematic even when all members of the group desire the goods in question. The difficulty is not so much that individuals actually adopt the freerider position and remain passive with regard to collective interests, as it is that the possibility of their failing to contribute makes it difficult for group members to anticipate each other's behavior with regard to the provision of collective goods. If individuals can not depend on adequate contributions from others, they can not be sure that collective effort will produce the desired goods, and have little incentive to risk a contribution of their own. Where this dynamic operates with respect to collective goods that could be provided to a community through voluntary action, the result will be a wide scale failure of voluntarism. In this situation individual rationality (cost minimization and benefit maximization) can lead to collective irrationality in that group interests will go unserved (Hardin, 1968).

Since the basis of this theory of voluntary action is an individual calculus in which group members weigh the expected costs and benefits of volunteering for joint undertakings,[1] the central question regarding volunteer efforts at improving public services may be seen as one of how this individual calculus is tipped in favor of participation. Personal values may explain much of the decision to volunteer, but it is the influence of government structure on individual cost/benefit calculi that is most useful in understanding the interface of the governmental and voluntary sectors from the individuals' perspective. The "structure" of a particular organization of governing institutions is established by the authority relationships it involves. The contribution which structure in this sense makes to voluntary activity is in providing a framework in which citizens can overcome the freerider problem and develop a feeling that voluntary action will be efficacious.

Neighborhood residents may have a great deal to gain from coordinating their individual efforts to improve conditions in their community (Morris and Hess, 1975). They might be able to secure better services, reduce crime rates and risks from fire, improve the physical environment, and generally enhance the quality of life available in their neighborhoods largely by their own actions. Such coordination of effort is not automatic because the effectiveness of each citizen's efforts at securing better conditions in the community depend on other citizens volunteering enough resources to have an impact. Where there are no institutional mechanisms to insure that enough contributions will be forthcoming, citizens may remain inactive because they fear that their contributions would be wasted for want of similar effort from others. Even where associations like block clubs exist to initiate and coordinate efforts, citizens may choose to remain passive because they feel that the combined resources of residents would be inadequate to affect any change in community conditions, either because of the enormity of the problems or because of the limited resources of area residents.[2]

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[1] The concept of an expected utility calculus is outlined in Luce and Raiffa, 1957, Appendix 1.

GOVERNMENT STRUCTURE AND INCENTIVES TO VOLUNTARISM

Two important elements in the individual's calculations about whether or not to volunteer then are 1) an evaluation of the likelyhood that others will contribute enough to make the join enterprise successful, and 2) an assessment of the adequacy of the resources available to the community for solving problems. Governmental action can directly affect the values attached to these estimations.

With respect to the adequacy of resources, federal, state or local governments can make funds available to certified local organizations to enable them to accomplish specified goals. A wide variety of such programs have been experimented with in recent years (Yin and Yates, 1974). The administrative details of these programs vary enormously, but they have in common the feature of providing resources to community groups. These resources could remove a major barrier to voluntary collective action by assuring citizens that their joint efforts will not fail because of insufficient cash, professional skill, or other resources. Such programs, however, are available to only a relatively few neighborhoods. Governments interested in promoting voluntary efforts at neighborhood betterment would be wise to institute programs for the routine financial support of voluntarily organized community development efforts that promise desirable results.

The second major factor in the individual's calculus about the logic of volunteering which governmental variables can influence is the estimation of the likelyhood that others will take part in collective efforts. Since each citizen's decision is partially based on an assessment of the adequacy of the resources available to the community for accomplishing specific goals, government policies subsidizing community self-help efforts can assist in tipping these estimates in favor of participation. Effectiveness of citizen action on public service levels, however, depends on the responsiveness of government agencies as well as on the adequacy of neighborhood resources (Jones, et. al., 1977). If communication with government personnel is difficult and if they have little latitude in modifying service delivery to respond to citizens' demands, residents may feel that the costs (in time, money and effort) of changing neighborhood conditions by changing government policy would be so great as to outweigh any possible benefits. Each citizen would reason that others would be unwilling to bear such costs, and that this would lead to a failure of collective action. They would then elect not to volunteer their own effort for fear of its being wasted.

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[2] The relationship between neighborhood resource levels and voluntary action on community problems is more fully explored in Rich (forthcoming). O'Brien (1975) provides an excellent example of the dynamic described here in his discussion of the Community Action program.

The cost to citizens of communicating demands to government and the authority with which officials can respond to those demands are crucially determined by the structural arrangements through which services are delivered. Centralized service delivery systems tend to make demand articulation costly for citizens, and to inhibit government responsiveness by restricting the discretion of administrative personnel (Rich, 1977). In recognition of this, a wide variety of decentralized service delivery structures have been developed in an effort to enhance service quality by increasing citizens' role in decision-making processes (Hallman, 1974).

The important feature of such arrangements for present purposes is that by reducing the costs of communicating with government, and increasing the likelyhood that government can be enlisted as an ally in community improvement efforts, decentralized political structures can create a more positive expectation about the productivity of collective action among citizens. If volunteering is seen as potentially successful, each citizen will have more reason to expect that others will volunteer their efforts to improve neighborhood conditions. This anticipation of resource pooling can sway the individual's calculus in favor of voluntarism.

The potential effectiveness of decentralized, participation-oriented service delivery structures is suggested by the success of the Neighborhood Council Plan of Independence, Missouri. This program divides the city into officially recognized neighborhoods. The residents of each area elect a Neighborhood Council which sends representatives to a Citizen's Advisory Council that works directly with the City Council. Each Neighborhood Council also selects one person from their area to serve on the citizens committees associated with each of the sixteen operating departments of the city service delivery apparatus (police, fire, parks and recreation, etc.). In addition to providing a formal channel for communication between citizens and officials with respect to on-going service delivery, the Neighborhood Councils are involved in the process of planning for the future needs of their communities.

Because of the commitment of the Independence government to supporting community efforts, the Neighborhood Councils Plan has stimulated a relatively high degree of citizen involvement and has produced an impressive list of small improvements in the quality of city life at little or no cost to the city treasury by motivating voluntary action among community residents.[3] Similar results might be expected from less ambitious programs. One approach might be to provide for formal recognition of voluntarily organized neighborhood groups by city government, and the establishment of regular communications between representatives of these groups and service agencies.

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[3] Information on the Independence Plan is available from Mr. Terry Snapp, Field Coordinator, Independence Neighborhood Councils, P.O. Box 407, Independence, Missouri 64051.

The Federal government may play a role in stimulating voluntarism through the way in which it structures its various programs of assistance to localities. The Neighborhood Housing Services program of the Urban Reinvestment Task Force (a joint undertaking of the Federal Home Loan Bank and the Department of Housing and Urban Development) provides an example. The program creates a nonprofit corporation in target neighborhoods. These corporations are controlled by area residents and bring together the three main actors in neighborhood development; citizens, financial institutions and local government. Each party plays a role in developing and implementing plans for community redevelopment. By not channeling its aid exclusively through local government, the federal government has created an opportunity for citizens to communicate their needs for services and take an active part in designing those services. Early experience with the program suggests that it stimulates increased efforts by local residents to salvage deteriorating neighborhoods (Ahlbrandt, 1976).

These examples only suggest some of the range of institutional arrangements that are available to government in seeking to create an environment in which the expected benefits of voluntary action outweigh the costs. While discussion has been restricted to public services, the same principles may be applied in analysis of government's role in encouraging or inhibiting voluntary efforts directed at other ends.

THE EFFECTS OF VOLUNTARISM ON GOVERNMENT AND PUBLIC POLICY

To this point the paper has focused on the impact of the government sector on voluntarism. In order to understand why government officials might want to affect the level and form of volunteerism in the society, it is useful to reverse the perspective and ask how volunteering can affect government activity. Ultimately, voluntarism can influence the very necessity of certain types of governmental activity. For instance, a large, voluntary cooperative of medical professionals implementing a program to provide any and all needed medical care to the indigent of a community could eliminate the necessity of public medical services in that locality. At a less utopian level, the form and level of voluntary action in a community commonly affects the extent and nature of government services that are needed, and the cost of providing those services. The following discussion will center on these more immediately practical aspects of the impact of voluntarism on the governmental sector.

Citizens actions with respect to municipal services in their neighborhoods bear a clear relationship to the need for and cost of governmental activity. Just as the concept of collective goods was central to understanding the impact of government on voluntarism, the idea of "coproduction" is important in explaining the impact of voluntarism on local government service delivery. Most public services have the characteristic of being provided through a process in which the combined efforts of consumers and service personnel determine the quality and quantity of services actually available. Consumers of public services often act as coproducers of the services they enjoy. The importance of coproduction is commonly recognized in the area of social or "soft" services (Fuchs, 1968). Practitioners often point out, for instance, that the effectiveness of drug abuse, family planning, nutrition and similar programs depends as much on the efforts of clients to secure and utilize information as it does on the ability of program staff members. Similarly, one frequently hears that the amount of education a child actually derives from public school attendance is determined at least as much by his or her own effort to learn and parents' support of educational norms as by the efforts of classroom teachers and school administrators. In each of these cases, consumers act as coproducers of services.

This same dynamic operates with respect to most of the "hard" services as well. The cleanliness of city streets is determined as much by the waste disposal habits of residents as by the efforts of sanitation workers. Citizens may act as coproducers of sanitation services by refraining from littering, organizing voluntary clean-up campaigns and putting trash out in as compact a fashion as possible. Similarly, citizens may act as coproducers of police services by being alert to and reporting suspicious events in their neighborhoods, cooperating with investigations of crimes, and organizing efforts to stop vandalism.[4]

Coproductive processes affect the delivery of municipal services even in the absence of citizens' awareness of these effects, and may detract from rather than enhance service quality. For example, the failure of citizens to take fire prevention precautions or to report fires at their outbreak can significantly increase the costs of providing adequate fire protection to an area. To the extent that residents can be persuaded to actively engage in coproduction by removing fire hazards, cooperating with fire inspectors, preventing vandalism to fire alarm boxes, and maintaining casual surveillance, the total resources mobilized for fire protection are increased and the quality of the service is improved at no additional cost to the city treasury (Rich and Gregg, 1975).

We may then speak of passive or negative coproduction which has detramental effects, and active or positive coproduction which has desirable effects. If seemingly small savings from active coproduction can be realized across different city services, they could constitute a substantial boon to the city budget. Thus government personnel should have a strong incentive to work with voluntary groups to organize active coproduction so as to maximize the actual amount of services delivered per tax dollar. The potential return on investment from resources put into organizing coproductive activity is probably higher than the return to be expected from resources put into additional service delivery equipment facilities, or personnel (Stinson and Stam, 1976; Wolozin, 1975). From the citizen's standpoint, small increases in the quality of the various municipal services delivered in his or her area can combine to significantly improve the quality of life in the neighborhood.

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[4] The dimensions of the contribution that coproductive efforts can make to the quality of law enforcement services and community life is suggested by the experiences reported in Black (1972) and Cross (1974).

If active coproduction can have such beneficial effects on both citizens and government agencies, why is it not a more commonly observed phenomena? Why don't citizens, as a matter of routine course, take responsibility for that range of service delivery functions which require no special skills or tools, and assist city personnel in the production of other aspects of those services? While it is undoubtedly possible to formulate complex sociological and psychological explanations for limited coproductive efforts, the phenomena can usefully be understood as an example of the same logic of collective action discussed above in connection with the volunteer's calculus. This perspective on the problem helps clarify the relationship of voluntarism to the need for governmentally-provided services.

The benefits of coproduction, like those of public services themselves, generally represent collective goods for the citizens of the affected neighborhoods. If residents work together to clean a junk-filled, rat-infested vacant lot everyone in the area enjoys a healthier environment as a result, whether or not they contributed to the cleaning. If the streets become safer because a juvenile gang is broken up through the joint efforts of concerned citizens and police, all residents have access to the higher level of personal safety, regardless of their part in the project.

This collective feature of the benefits from coproduction means that voluntarily organized coproductive efforts will have to overcome the same freerider problem that plagues volunteer undertakings generally. Citizens must feel certain that others will contribute enough to make the project a success so that the benefits of volunteering outweigh the costs. Governments can significantly influence this perception by recognizing the potential significance of coproduction, and organizing service delivery procedures so as to take advantage of it. Such actions would provide a framework for coordinating citizens' actions, and would encourage citizens to expect their coproductive efforts to be successful by committing service delivery personnel to support them. Coproduction is best fostered through some form of neighborhood-based service delivery system (Rich, 1977). Financially pressed local governments should have a strong incentive to experiment with structural reforms in efforts to encourage volunteerism.

VOLUNTEER SERVICE DELIVERY

In addition to affecting municipal services through coproductive processes, citizens can act directly as producers of services. Voluntary fire departments and ambulance services are well known, especially in smaller communities, and many other local service functions utilize volunteer effort. Volunteered labor can markedly affect the costs of municipal services (Lederer and Badenhop, 1976).

Stinson and Stam (1976) have argued that a primary incentive for citizens to volunteer to produce public services is the tax savings that can be achieved thereby. They conceptualize these savings as a "shadow wage" earned by volunteers through reducing the tax cost of services they receive by volunteering their own effort. Undoubtedly there are also social and psychological incentives for participation in voluntary service delivery organizations (Perlstadt, 1975). If the Stinson and Stam thesis is correct, however, it suggests a method for attracting volunteers to public services in which government finds voluntary labor could be practically used. This method involved formalizing the shadow wage by offering citizens personal tax credits for services volunteered to local government. Citizen volunteers could be directly compensated by reductions in their taxes equal to the value of the labor that their services replace. They could perform a variety of both routine and skilled labor associated with non-contract city functions on a piecework or hourly basis.

Since personnel costs account for fifty to eighty percent of city budgets, the savings involved in avoidance of fringe benefits and in payment of fair but non-union rates for services through tax credits could have an important impact on city budgets. Many administrative and legal arrangements would have to be worked out to resolve potential problems with such a program, but there is no reason to view these tasks as insurmountable barriers to implementation.

Moreover, reliance on a system of compensated volunteerism in public service delivery would facilitate resolution of a problem in federal policy which presently represents a bias against the use of volunteers in local government. This bias arises from the inclusion of "tax effort" in calculating the amount of aid available to a local government under federal revenue sharing (Public Law 92-512) without an adjustment for the use of volunteer labor to provide services. Failing to consider the value of non-paid labor in providing local services discourages local jurisdictions from using volunteers by reducing the ratio of federal aid to actual service delivery effort. The most important obstacle to inclusion of volunteer labor in the federal revenue sharing formula is probably the difficulty of establishing a value for such labor. By formalizing the shadow wage through a system of tax credits, the records necessary to prove the value of volunteered effort would be created, and standards for assigning a tax-effort value to volunteer-delivered services would be established. The implicit penalty against use of volunteers could then be removed from federal revenue sharing provisions.

CONCLUSION

The provision of collective goods through government poses some extremely difficult problems in apportioning the supply of these goods to citizens' demands for them because of the absence of a unit pricing system like that which operates in the market sector. Electoral and representative arrangements have been devised to facilitate apportioning supply to demand, but the process is highly imprecise. Volunteer activities may be viewed as an important adjunct to other mechanisms of demand articulation in the public sector.

The citizen who volunteers time and effort to improve service delivery has essentially expressed a specific demand for some level or type of service. To the extent that local service delivery can move in the direction of volunteerism in both direct and indirect provision, governmental activity will more closely reflect the distribution of demand for collective goods in the community, will be less coercive, and will be less costly to citizens. Reliance of government on voluntary effort, in fact, facilitates realization of the democratic ideal of popular self-government.

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PROBLEMS IN EVALUATING STUDENT VOLUNTEER EXPERIENCES

Griffith R. Dye

One of the central issues in the area of student volunteerism and experiential education is the design of methods by which we evaluate the objectives of our program. CAEL (Cooperative Assessment of Experiential Learning) has been involved in the effort to measure student outcomes of experiential learning, and much of their focus has been on assessment of prior learning. Others have focused on the relationship of student values and volunteering, and more studies of the effects of volunteerism on the volunteers themselves are appearing. Profughi and Warren (1976) have pointed out what they considered to be the inadequacies of the "impressionistic" model of evaluation which omits more systematic evidence of change in both affective and cognitive areas. On the other hand, such authors as Robert Coles, have decried the fact that advocates of social science methodology often fail to come to terms with important human problems that need to be addressed, while downgrading other techniques for arriving at the truth. His point is simply that there is a lot to be gained by an evaluative approach which stresses listening, watching, reflecting, and expressing one's analysis in a narrative form, rather than by mailing out questionnaires or putting cards through a computer.

My main point is that while there is much to be gained by more rigorous evaluation procedures using objective measures of growth and change, we should not overlook the rich source of information derived from letting people express themselves in ways which are often not susceptible to a quantitative analysis. I hope to illustrate some ways of measuring moral development consistent with this philosophy by reference to a program developed and implemented at the Office for Experiential Education at the University of Kentucky.

The ethics program represents an effort to facilitate the moral as well as the cognitive and vocational development of undergraduate students by combining a seminar focusing on moral questions, with an internship (or volunteer placement) in a local public agency. The internship gives students a chance to learn about themselves, their career interests and skills, and about how public agencies operate. More importantly for our purposes, they learn about the ethical nature of decisions affecting society not just by reading about policies, or by observing policy makers, but by actually making decisions themselves. The seminar, on the other hand, attempts to heighten the student's sensitivity to ethical issues and conflicts, and to increase their ability to think critically about the consequences of decisions that they make as interns and as individuals. We are assuming that if they can think more clearly and reason more logically, they will begin to see more choices in their lives and be better able to isolate moral issues. How do we measure changes in ethical sensitivity? Is it even possible? If so, what are the problems involved? How do we discover whether students think more critically or understand their role as citizens, or can outside of class act on their beliefs more ethically than before participation, or more than an average group of non-volunteer students? If there are changes can we attribute them to this combination of internship and seminar?

METHODS OF EVALUATION

Once we had determined our objectives the process of selecting evaluation measures became somewhat easier. Barton (1959), for instance, mentions ways to measure values, of which several have application here. One way is simply to question the person about his or her behavior. One might check this information by studying real-life behavior patterns, such as community involvement, voting and the like, but this can be rather time consuming and may not be necessary for our purposes. Mischel, in Personality and Assessment (1968) asserts that for college students and other normal populations, this is a valid way of obtaining information. We might also attempt to measure realisitic behavior in a contrived situation, such as social psychologists design, but this again may not be congruent with our purposes. We might collect verbal statements of how a person would behave if confronted with a certain situation or ask our subjects to choose how a person should decide about a given matter. Furthermore, we might ask them about their likes and dislikes related to values, or about social policies or abstract goals or principles. We could have them in a projective fashion make up a story incorporating certain themes or elements and from that infer the structure of their value system. These are some of the available possibilities when we seek to determine effects of our programs.

In designing evaluation procedures of our ethics program, we have employed several of these techniques to measure the moral development of our students. We have used an adaptation of Kohlberg test of moral judgment at the beginning of the semester; this has allowed us to tap in standardized, replicable fashion students' reasoning about certain moral dilemmas. As you probably know, Kohlberg and his Swiss precusor Piaget postulate that children and adolescents move through certain levels of moral development. A child of 5 or 6, for example, may judge an act's morality by its results rather than by the motives of the actor. Thus in a child's mind a person who accidentally breaks a tablefull of expensive china attempting to help his parents is judged naughtier than the child who breaks a single glass in a furtive attempt to snitch a pre-meal cookie. At the next level the person begins to rely on socially established rules and authority -- what has been termed a duty,bound or law and order orientation. At the highest level a person looks to internally developed standards or principles of justice to regulate behavior.

If one accepts the underlying assumption of the Piaget-Kohlberg model that morality proceeds through a developmental sequence, one should realize that there is little empirical support for the idea of a monolithic conscience or superego that consistently governs our moral behavior from situation to situation. Studies with children forty years ago first concluded that while there was consistency between children's self reported opinions and thoughts about moral issues on classroom paper and pencil measures, when alternate forms of these tests were given in different surroundings, such as at home, in school, or club meetings, correlations of their scores among situations were substantially reduced. This led to the idea that children vary their moral response to suit the situation. Investigators studying three indices of morality (moral judgment, resistance to temptation and post transgression guilt and remorse) have also concluded that there is no support for the existence of a unitary trait such as honesty that uniformly applies a generalized moral standard in different situations. This suggests that there is value in a volunteer experience as a laboratory in which a student has to formulate responses to real situations. It also underscores the possibility of a dichotomy between paper and pencil measures of moral reasoning and actual behavior in circumstances involving ethical considerations, and points out the need to measure morality in different situations, and in different ways.

A difficulty with Kohlberg's method of assessing moral development is that it calls for persons to respond in an open form fashion to ethical dilemmas; raters then judge the level of responses, but this can be an arduous process. We chose a variation of the Kohlberg method developed by James Rest of the University of Minnesota. Essentially Rest's adaptation involves having students to respond to each of six moral dilemmas, ranking the reasons for their decisions for each of six dilemmas. This method allows the researcher to compare students on the basis of the different rankings of identical sets of reasons. The score a student receives is one reflecting the percentage of a principled (highest level) orientation. Students chosen for the ethics seminar were pretested with this measure, called the Defining Issues Test. I might say a word here about the importance of talking with students about their responses on these measures. Tests of moral judgment intrude upon a sensitive area of a person's self-image and identity, and need to be interpreted with care. As with any experiment I believe the researcher has an obligation to explain the purposes of the evaluation or research and to share test information with the person in a way that respects his or her feelings.

Pre and posttesting with Rest's measure has the advantage of allowing us to draw cautious conclusions about development throughout the course of the semester. It also allows for comparison with other groups of students. One advantage standardized tests have over more subjective measures is this reference to norm groups. (Since we are still in the process of evaluation I cannot report to you how students have scored.)

I mentioned earlier that it is not always practical to measure the behavior of volunteers in contrived situations, but where we can measure them, real situations offer the most accurate reflection of a person's morality. To give an example, it was our good fortune to have adequate funding for our project from the Lilly Endowment to take our students to Washington, D.C., to study public policy at a national level, and to observe the structure and operation of the government in person. All the students took this charge seriously and set up appointments which afforded them a national perspective on their local internships as well as on the themes of the seminar. One student, however, seemed more intent on using the trip to solicit congressmen for contributions to his student political club, rather than learning about public policy.

Other opportunities for this land of observation have presented themselves throughout the semester. An initial perception on the part of the students seemed to be that ethics was in a category by itself, separate and distinct from other areas of human conduct. Since their internships were the prime areas for ethical scrutiny, their relationships with each other and with us for example, were beyond consideration at that level. Thus when we deliberately surprised them with an unannounced test on the readings early in the semester, no one objected that our procedure was unethical. It was assumed that it was our right to change the terms of our initial agreement about the course without notice. In a similar way, their behavior early in the semester underscored the idea that not only was the inquiry about certain ethical issues restricted to a finite and precisely defined area, but also the topics covered in seminar bore no assumed relationship either to each other or to their particular placements. Partly this was a function of an initial difficulty grasping overriding issues of principle, and partly a reluctance to think critically and skeptically about their agencies. Lately, however, they have been more ready to apply an ethical perspective to their dealings with themselves and with us. A standard comment has become, "That sounds fine, but is it ethical?" The permeating into their consciousness of an ethical awareness is one of the results that we have been able to observe and record without aid of - or interference from - a test.

We are relying on two measures to determine this sensitivity in more than observational ways. One has been through one of their assignments, a journal or chronicle of conflicts and issues which they feel have posed ethical significance. In representing what the student feels is important, the chronicle reflects a changing sensitivity to ethical issues. In a similar way we asked them at the beginning of the term simply to list on a sheet of paper ethical dilemmas that they thought they would be facing in the future. We will contrast this record with the list that they compile at the end of the semester to determine the kinds of changes that have taken place, and the nature of the conflicts that assume importance for them. We have also asked them to rank statements which embody different work values such as economic concerns, prestige, creativity, autonomy, altruism and the like, and plan to compare their pre-seminar work values with those when they finish.

Finally, we are planning an evaluation session with our students to ask them what they feel they have gained from participation in the program, and how they feel their behavior and attitudes are different as a result. We believe that this kind of information is necessary to solicit and is as valid as that from the D.I.T., the chronicle, listings of ethical dilemmas, and our observations of their behavior in class and in Washington.

CONTROL GROUP

In addition to the methodological problems of selecting measures which reflect the amount and kind of learning that occurs as the result of a program, one must decide about the relevance of a control group to the research design. We have sought to include a control group for two reasons. First, its inclusion adds more specific documentation as to what changes the program is and is not responsible for in the students. Townsend (1974), in a study of volunteers' values at Delaware, emphasized that a control group helped distinguish the causes of negative results between the volunteer program and a universal feeling a political and personal pessimism among freshmen students. Second, such results - or lack of them - can lead to modifications which may increase the effectiveness of a program.

To implement a tightly designed study with a control group matched in terms of motivation and other variables in our program would have meant randomly selecting students from a pool of applicants and including them in the seminar and the others in the control. We had difficulty justifying this kind of exclusion, and opted for a procedure that involves the use of students in other classes. One group to be tested are those students who are in volunteer placements through our office, but are not part of any course focusing on the ethical aspects of public policy decision making. A second group serving as a control is simply following a regular course of study without special emphasis on either ethics or an internship.

This latter group was added with the idea in mind that we could test the University's claim - in its student bulletin - that the development of a "moral purpose" is one of the goals of a liberal education. It may be possible in the future to include a group of philosophy students taking a course on ethics to contrast the moral development of students who are involved with ethics at several different levels.

EFFECTIVENESS OVER TIME

A final issue to be considered in this type of research is the permanency of the results. Counseling studies have noted how time has often eroded the effects of certain programs. It is important that we begin to define the type of changes that we hope our volunteer programs will promote over time, and to begin checking on how well these effects endure. Staying in touch with our students over a long period of time, and talking with them about their lives, their job choices, their families, their satisfactions, and dissatisfactions, can be enormously rewarding in itself. Like Robert Coles, we will find that we become involved with people and their lives rather than sets of data. I have gotten printouts from a computer, and it doesn't compare with talking to a person about what he or she thinks is important. Social science methodology has something to offer, and where it is appropriate, it can be used with good results. But to glorify it as the epitome of science is to miss the point of research: to attempt to find out why things happen the way they do, and to explain these changes in the most careful and precise manner possible.

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UNIVERSITY YEAR FOR ACTION - A CASE STUDY OF A FEDERALLY-SPONSORED VOLUNTEER PROGRAM

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GENERAL

The University Year for ACTION is a program for full-time student volunteer service, authorized by the Domestic Volunteer Services Act of 1973. Receiving grants from UYA, colleges and universities select, train and place volunteers with community service agencies or organizations. The volunteers participate for one year in an experiential learning program designed by the university, and are awarded one year of academic credit. There are currently 59 colleges and universities and about 2200 students participating in UYA. An increase to 65 institutions of higher learning is planned for 1977.

The primary mission of UYA is to provide human resources on a volunteer basis to organizations, agencies and groups working toward the elimination of poverty and poverty-related human, social and environmental problems. UYA has four goals related to this mission:

(1) To provide effective manpower to work on poverty problems. "Effective manpower" includes useful skills, volunteer commitment, and the use of outside resources.

(2) To encourage educational institutions to assist local poverty communities. Volunteers act as catalysts in the process of resource sharing between universities and their immediate poverty community.

(3) To combine community services and academic study in an integrated one-year program. Such a program would utilize newer learning methods and result in sounder career choices.

(4) To decentralize volunteer programs at the local level using educational institutions. UYA encourages universities through local program design and management to utilize their capabilities and resources while at the same time identifies agencies where student volunteers might learn.

Volunteers are assigned in eight general areas: education, administration of justice, health, social services, economic development, housing, environmental protection and consumer protection.

Most of the money supporting UYA comes from ACTION. To date, it has cost an average of $2000 for each student's living allowance and $1000 for the university's administrative costs. The ACTION share is being gradually reduced by cost-sharing in which grantees seek out other sources of funds as a condition of continued ACTION support.

THE AUTHORIZATION

University Year for ACTION received its authorization under the Domestic Services Volunteer Act of 1973. Section 111 of this Act states the three purposes of the program:

> (1) To strengthen and supplement efforts to eliminate poverty and poverty-related human, social and environmental problems by enabling students at such cooperating institutions to perform meaningful and constructive volunteer service in connection with the satisfaction of such students' course work during their periods of service while attending such institutions, in agencies, institutions, and situations where the application of human talent and dedication may assist in the solution of poverty and poverty-related problems and secure and exploit opportunities for self-advancement by persons afflicted with such problems;
>
> (2) To encourage other students and faculty members to engage, on a part-time, self-supporting basis, in such volunteer service and work along with volunteers serving under this part; and to promote participation by such institutions in meeting the needs of the poor in the surrounding community through expansion of service-learning programs and otherwise;
>
> (3) To provide for a program of part-time or short-term service — learning by secondary and post-secondary school students to strengthen and supplement efforts to eliminate poverty and poverty-related human, social and environmental problems.

The Director of ACTION is authorized to carry out the above purposes by making grants and/or contracts for UYA programs and recruiting full-time volunteers to work in their own or local communities on appropriate projects and programs (section 112).

Volunteers are required to make a

> full-time personal commitment to combating poverty and poverty-related human, social and environmental problems. To the maximum extent practicable, this shall include a commitment to live among and at the economic level of the people served, and to remain available for service without regard to regular working hours, at all times during their periods of service, except for authorized periods of leave (section 104(a)).

In addition to receiving a small stipend (section 105(a)), UYA participants are authorized to recieve academic credit in accordance with the regulations of the university or college (section 113(a)).

The Act further requires that students and community beneficiaries be allowed to help plan programs (sections 106, 113(b)), and universities are to "...make available to the poor in the surrounding community all available facilities including human resources, of such institutions in order to assist in meeting the needs of such poor persons" (section 113(b)).

Section 113 (c) provides for the institutionalization of UYA programs. As provisions for receiving grants, universities must make every effort to:

(1) Assume an increasing proportion of the cost of continuing a program carrying out the purpose of this part while the institution receives support under this part;

(2) Waive or otherwise reduce tuition for participants in such program, where such waiver is not prohibited by law;

(3) Utilize students and faculty at such institution to carry out, on a self-supporting basis, appropriate planning for such programs;

(4) Maintain similar service-learning programs after such institution no longer receives support under this part.

THE UYA STRUCTURE AT THE UNIVERSITY

The participating universities are selected on the basis of the value and feasibility of their goals, history of community involvement, experience, resources, unique features of their proposals, and budgets. A wide variety of schools sponsor UYA projects: The smallest has 100 students, the largest more than 50,000. The spectrum includes community colleges, state universities, private colleges, minority schools, graduate schools, land-grant universities and teachers' colleges.

Schools submit an ACTION grant proposal to establish a UYA project. Once approved, the school is responsible for:

(1) Developing projects with local social service agencies that follow ACTION guidelines for solving poverty problems;

(2) Providing a service-learning plan that meets UYA requirements;

(3) Recruiting, selecting and training volunteers;

(4) Developing alternate resources to support the program when UYA funds are withdrawn.

Each university decides on its own method of recruitment. Most volunteers come from the regular student body, although some universities have used the UYA program as a new educational opportunity to attract students who want to finish their education through a volunteer program of experiential learning combined with service to the community.

The process whereby projects, communities and jobs are identified usually involves meetings between university administrators and faculty, representatives of low-income people and with agencies working on their behalf. A study is made of the poverty problems in their area and, to determine specific needs and projects to meet those needs, five questions are considered:

(1) What is the nature of this particular problem?

(2) How do we statistically measure the extent of the problem?

(3) What solution do we propose, and what role will the volunteer play?

(4) What do we expect to accomplish in one year, stated statistically?

(5) How will this project be continued without full-time volunteers -- or can we meet the need in one or two years?

After the jobs have been identified, the schools try to match the talents and/or interests and academic major of the volunteer with the requirements of the job. In many cases, the decisions are made by committees composed of community people and students as well as university faculty and administrators.

Each UYA volunteer has two supervisors -- one on the project and one at the university. They evaluate the student's progress, help him/her with problems, and advise on how he/she can use the university's resources. After training, the day-to-day supervision is undertaken by the community or agency supervisor. Grading is done by the two supervisors.

Volunteers are granted academic credit for one full year of participation in UYA. Credit-granting arrangements vary from university to university due to institutional biases or volunteer needs. Some use contracts for independent study based on community service, negotiated by the volunteer and faculty members. Others include related reading, papers, seminars and reports assigned to them by their faculty advisors. Volunteers do not attend regular classes.

FEDERAL SUPPORT AND INSTITUTIONALIZATION

The first week in November, 1971, 18 schools (Phase I received UYA planning grants for structuring programs scheduled to begin in January and February, 1972. During this period, the UYA program concept continued to be refined. In January-February 1972, 14 Phase II schools began programs (see Table 1).

Since these early programs were begun, grants have increased, although total annual funding has varied. Table 2 presents the actual dollar amounts which the UYA program has received since FY 1971.

Annual grants are broken down as follows: 2% go to special projects (discretionary fund); 23% is divided equally among the regions; 75% is awarded on the basis of the number of people in the poverty population (rather than the number of students). The method of allocating the 75% sends the money to those regions that have the lowest student population relative to poverty population (e.g., California) and other areas, such as New England, which have a large student population relative to poverty population receive less.

There are three levels upon which an evaluation of the degree and effectiveness of institutionalization of UYA programs must be made: the university, the sponsor, the volunteer. In 1975 researchers at the American University conducted a study of institutionalization of UYA at 27 representative schools which had completed the 3-year cycle. The following is a summary of their results (American University, 1975):

The researchers saw 10 requirements (indicators) upon which judgements of successful institutionalization of UYA programs could be made:

(1) Funding of an office to coordinate volunteers. 12 said they had formed such an office; 15 had not.

(2) Funding of an office of experiential education. 3 said they had; 9 said they had not.

(3) Funding to support volunteers by the university. 12 schools reported partial funding by the university; 15 had no funding.

(4) Changes in official statements about the role of service-learning. All schools said that official statements had been made in support of UYA by either the President or Academic Vice-President of the school.

(5) A decrease in faculty time to compensate for time supervising students. 14 said yes, time had been decreased in varying amounts; 6 reported additional pay to faculty involved; 3 schools

said ACTION had taken over supervision; 4 said there was no decrease.

(6) A decrease in tuition of participating students. 23 reported no decrease for varying reasons (could not afford to, illegality of such a decrease, e.g.); 4 reported some decrease.

(7) Academic credit being given for other types of off-campus voluntary service-learning. 15 reported a significant increase in curriculum emphasis on service-learning; 16, a moderate increase; 4, little increase; 2, no increase.

(8) University-wide, academic committee to coordinate service-learning activities across campus. 7 said such a committee exists; 1 said it is being evaluated; 19 said it did not exist.

(9) The university actively giving out information on the strengths, weaknesses and benefits of various service-learning programs, including UYA. All 27 said they were.

(10) Existence of inter-university programs involving service-learning components among schools in a region. 12 schools said yes; 15, no.

In summary, the majority of the 27 schools surveyed have institutionalized UYA programs to some degree; there is a moderate to significant increase in curricula emphasis on service-learning. Areas which need further attention, however, are funding, tuition, faculty time commitments and/or compensation.

The second area is community agency institutionalization. American University researchers interviewed 66 sponsors at the end of a UYA cycle and received the following responses to three questions:

(1) Was there greater involvement of the agency with the university? In general, yes, with 31% reporting the existence of a relationship before the UYA program; 74% had contact after.

(2) Did volunteer achievements survive without the continued involvement of UYA volunteers? The majority of the projects had remained in total or in part. However, since many volunteer activities were human services for clients, they tended to disappear without volunteers.

(3) Were volunteer functions taken over by others? Sponsors reported that this was impossible without more money to hire more staff. Community volunteers could not do UYA projects due to the time and skills required, so agencies had to use student volunteers rather than community volunteers.

Finally, with respect to institutionalization of UYA among the volunteers, a sample of 63 former volunteers were asked:

(1) Did you continue volunteer service after the UYA experience? 33%, yes; 5%, plan to; 55%, no.

(2) Were the academics integrated with the service aspects of your role as a UYA volunteer? 50% said they were able to easily integrate academics with service; 26% rated the integration either fair, poor or non-existent.

Institutionalization was the agenda topic at a conference held at the University of Kentucky in 1976. There were two major issues discussed. The first was to increase per volunteer ACTION funding from $3000 per volunteer to $4000 per volunteer with the usual gradual phase down. The second issue was revision of the project period. The legislation authorizing UYA allows for 5-year program cycles; however, only three year projects were being implemented. Universities received ACTION support for the first three years on a decreasing basis, so that by the 4th year the school was on its own. It was felt by conference participants that the project period should be increased to the 5 years allowed for in the Domestic Volunteer Services Act.

However, both these recommendations came to naught due to the Nixon and Ford Administrations' desires to eliminate the UYA and VISTA programs entirely by 1979. As a result, UYA programs are currently being funded for three years at $3500 per volunteer.

COMPARISON WITH COLLEGE WORK STUDY PROGRAM (CWSP)

Below is a comparison of the CWSP with UYA. It should be noted that CWSP includes on-campus and, especially, off-campus jobs.

Differences:

UYA	CWSP
1 Full-time, one year.	1 Part-time, no limit.
2 Students do not attend regular classes.	2 Students attend regular classes.
3 Off-campus.	3 On- or off-campus.
4 Receive academic credit & small stipend.	4 Recieve basic pay, usually the hourly minimum wage.
5 Live at level of local community and with them.	5 Live at home or school.
6 Service-learning is primary.	6 Meeting financial need is primary.

7 Poverty-related, service-oriented jobs only. Areas include: education, justice, health, social services, environmental protection, economic development, housing and consumer protection.	7 Jobs do not have to be poverty-related, may be clerical. Areas include: recreation, health, employment services, education, general office duties.
8 Basic philosophy: alleviate poverty by using resources; help universities in experiential learning.	8 Basic philosophy: provide sound work experience while learning.
9 Resources from community: minimum of 10% of total in operational phases.	9 Resources from community: vary, ranging from 0 to 80% of going wage depending on amount given by CWSP.
10 Training provided primarily by university (or ACTION). Sponsors give field direction and supervision.	10 Training provided by host.

Similarities:

(1) Students are placed in agencies that cannot afford to hire all the staff they require.

(2) A focal point of UYA and CWSP is to help neighborhood leaders to develop new skills.

(3) Both programs help define career choices, acquire useful skills, develop positive work attitudes, integrate program and career objectives through clinical job experiences (Columbia University, 1973).

Some CWSPs grant credit as well as pay wages. The goal of work study programs at Boston University is to develop student job experiences which try to relate his/her academic program and/or career interests with the CWSP job assignment. Beria College attempts to relate the student's education with a job, to make every effort to coordinate the job with the academic work program.

IMPACT ON THE INSTITUTION OF HIGHER LEARNING

One of the goals of UYA is to increase the involvement of university resources in the local (poverty) community. A consideration of the impact of UYA on the university will ask to what extent this has happened. As the discussion above of institutionalization has indicated, UYA volunteers have been generally successful in acting as catalysts for resource sharing.

> It did appear that the students succeeded in getting more university resources into the community. 42% of the volunteers got part-time volunteer service from other students. 36% recruited faculty assistance for their project and 32% succeeded in getting other resources such as facilities, equipment, books and library assistance, and technical assistance (Kringold, 1973, p. 9).

Another impact on the university is increased linkages between the university and the community agencies. Often, many universities already have ties to the local community before UYA but these contacts are increased over the 3-year program.

Furthermore, the UYA experience often serves to attract students to the university, improves its relations and reputation with the community, and develops closer ties between students, faculty and the community.

Finally, a good indication of how universities expect UYA to effect them is given by their reasons for instituting the program. Table 3 gives reasons cited by 50 project directors (American University, 1975).

If UYA were instituted for reasons 1 and 2, there would be no major effect on the university; the program would simply "fit in" to other existing ones. If reason 3 were successful, UYA would impact on the design and implementation of other service-learning programs at the university. Reasons 5 and 6 see UYA as enhancing the school's image and programs for students, especially in the eyes of the community. Reasons 4, 7-10 are means-end reasons and, if achieved, would impact in limited immediate ways.

IMPACT ON THE VOLUNTEER

Not just any student is selected for UYA programs. Such factors are considered as past volunteer experience, motivation and ability to combine experiential learning and service to the poverty community. The volunteer must also agree to live and work full-time for one year in a local poor community.

To assess the impact of the UYA experience on the UYA volunteer it is necessary to answer four questions: Why did the student become a UYA volunteer? Was he/she able to integrate service-learning with academics? What was the effect of the program on skills, values, career choices, and attitudes toward school? How did his/her experience compare with his/her usual curriculum?

With respect to the first question, a survey of the reasons for joining of volunteers in Phase I and II revealed the data in Table 4 (Kringold, 1973). More recent surveys agree with these results. When asked, "How important was each factor below in influencing your decision (to become a volunteer)?", the results presented in Table 5 were obtained (American University, 1975).

Three major reasons were cited by the 266 present volunteers as influencing their decision to become a UYA volunteer: (a) to gain some practical experience in a chosen field or college major; (b) to develop some desired skill and abilities; and (c) to provide a needed service for the alleviation of some poverty-related problem.

> Among the present UYA volunteers the more important reasons for applying for such an experience are very practical in nature. That is, students are seeking an opportunity to gain skills and abilities and to test themselves in areas related to their career goals. They are seeking a different kind of learning experience (American University, 1975, p. III-36, 37).

How well was the volunteer able to integrate the service-learning aspect of UYA with his/her academic courses? Volunteer Ann Talbot, University of Oregon, helps teenagers find jobs. She joined UYA to use academic skills that were not being used in classes for any practical uses. Once on the job, however, "you begin to use academic skills you thought were ridiculous... I'm really glad I did it, in terms of that practical application of academic skills."[1] Comments UYA volunteer Julie Pryor, University of Oregon, who organizes volunteer programs for a mental health association:

> I think it's (UYA) an extremely worthwhile program. It's one of the few at the university that gives students a chance to get their feet wet in the field that they're interested in...they can see whether that's really what they want to do. For me, it's really been a growing experience.[2]

Thus, both these volunteers see UYA as a means of testing and applying academics to service-learning.

In response to a question on the effect of the UYA experience on the student's attitude toward learning (American University, 1975), 51% (N=61) reported a positive and another 38% a somewhat positive influence on their learning attitudes. Only one student cited a negative effect. Most wrote how they were better able to apply class material to the "real world" and how they had developed a greater appreciation for practical, on-the-job experiential learning.

What is the effect of UYA on skills, values, career choices and attitudes toward school? Considering that

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[1] Mike Stahlberg, "Two University of Oregon Coeds Work and Learn," Register-Guard, Eugene, Oregon, January 24, 1977.

[2] Ibid., p.

> ... UYA volunteers include a large number of students nearing the end of their undergraduate education, who have not focused sharply on a career path, and have limited pre-professional academic training in practical skill areas (Krimgold, 1973, p. 20.).

it is a great accomplishment that 80% of UYA volunteers said the program affected their choice of a career. All except one said UYA work stimulated their intellectural growth and development (American Univeristy, 1975).

In general, volunteers feel they make significant progress during their year of service in understanding the causes and conditions of poverty, understanding the workings of the agency to which they were assigned, and mastering skills and techniques to do their job (see Table 6).

Commenting on UYA's contribution to her career development, Marsha Mitchell (Morgan State College, Baltimore; East Baltimore Medical Planning Clinic) said,

> I was beginning to wonder if I really wanted to go into public health. Now I've stopped wondering. I know how it is and my graduate work will all be directed to what my experience tells me will be useful when I become a professional.[3]

Says Nanette Smith (East Washington State College), a tutor for slow elementary school learners:

> My experience this year is going to be a big help to me during my junior and senior years, because it will enable me to select those courses that I know will be most valuable to me as a teacher.[4]

Gladys Jamison is one of several adult women UYA volunteers. Some are former house wives who see UYA as a transition to entering the working world. For Jamison, the Assistant Superintendent of Schools where she worked suggested that UYA would offer her a chance to take college courses while upgrading her job skills.[5]

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[3] "UYA Unites Academe with Action: Innovative Program Mobilizes Resources," Synergist, Vol. 1, No. 2, Spring 1972, p. 18.

[4] Ibid., p. 73.

[5] "Marist's UYA Volunteers Work with Poughkeepsie Youth," Synergist, Vol. 4, No. 3, Winter 1976, p. 35.

When asked to cite specific skills volunteers felt they had developed or improved, 9 categories were mentioned (American University, 1975):

- working with other people (counseling, social service);
- legal skills and ability to use judicial system;
- teaching;
- planning and organizing;
- report and proposal writing;
- research skills.

Volunteers were asked, "In what ways, if any, did your volunteer experience further your career development?" 37% said UYA gave them direction in and understanding of their intended career. Another 22% said it was helpful in securing their furst full-time job after college. The rest of the replies could be classified as: influencing plans for graduate schools, providing more incentive to finish school, and helping to get an increase in salary (American University, 1975).

With respect to influences on values and personal development, Marist College UYA volunteers

> ...felt that they had gained self-understanding and self-awareness, and that they in turn had helped their clients -- youth of Poughkeepsie city -- to become more self-aware and more independent.[6]

How did the UYA experience compare with the usual classroom experience? In a Post-Service Questionnaire to Phase I volunteers, 125 of 129 (97%) of the respondents said they learned more from their UYA year than they could have learned in one year of college academic work (Krimgold, 1973). Fermin Garcia, a junior at Eastern Washington State College who works with parolees of Neighborhood Youth Corps, agrees:

> This program (UYA) should have been started years ago. I really feel I've been of some help to these kids. At the same time I'm convinced I've learned much more than I would have in any classroom.[7]

Finally, American University researchers asked volunteers to rate their degree of agreement with four statements regarding their volunteer experience (American University, 1975). The results are reported in Table 7.

In conclusion, there is a definite impact of the UYA experience

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[6] "Marist's UYA Volunteers...", op. cit., p. 35.

[7] "UYA Unites Academe with Action," op. cit., p. 20.

IMPACT ON (POVERTY) COMMUNITY AND AGENCIES

On the whole volunteers appear to feel their service made an effective positive contribution to the local community. For example, by volunteering at the East Baltimore Medical Planning Clinic, Morgan State College UYA Volunteer Frank Long helps the local community by visiting the housing developments and looking for problems that the shy or the uninformed do not bring in to the clinic.[8]

The UYA services of Joan Ross and Marsha Mitchell impact on the Provident Community Mental Health Center by doing many jobs that free up time for the professional staff. Cora Ingram, Director of the Outpatient Service at the Center, said the UYA volunteers bring "enthusiasm, interest, and a fresh point of view."[9]

Larry Harlee counsels junior and senior high youths, focusing on two basketball teams at the Community Action Agency 9 in Baltimore:

> ...I know that my biggest successes are the ones that cannot be documented. I know that some of the hard core dudes playing on my teams have been somewhat affected by the norms I represent. Consequently, while they are not yet ready to run for public office, I'm convinced they fit into society much better now than they did 3 months ago.[10]

Many estimates have been made of the dollar amount of community resources generated by UYA volunteers. For Phase I volunteers, community resources generated were estimated as follows (Krimgold, 1973): Recruitment of other part-time community volunteers (a goal of UYA) amounted to a total number of 2636 (average of 6.2 recruited per volunteer; material resources generated amounted to 38% obtained from the community for a total dollar value of $129,853.

It has also been estimated that UYA provides volunteer manpower worth yearly salaries from $3000 to $12,000, with an average of $6500 (Krimgold, 1973). A 1974 study (ACTION, 1974) established the dollar value of all volunteer services by assigning dollar values to the direct economic benefits produced by the volunteers. It was found that total income produced or mobilized by volunteers was $642,271. The total value of resources generated by the volunteers for their sponsoring agency was $997,014.

CHANGES OVER TIME AND THE FUTURE OF THE PROGRAM - REGIONAL RESOURCE CENTER AND TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE

Annual grants for UYA have been steadily decreasing since 1974. Many are concerned that this will result in a larger decrease in the amount individual schools receive due to the increasing number of schools who wish to apply for grants (the number awarded has steadily increased since 1971). Thus, dollar/grant will go down, forcing universities to rely increasingly on other supplementary sources of funds.

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[8] *Ibid.*, p. 18.

[9] *Ibid.*, p. 18.

[10] *Ibid.*, p. 18.

What happens to UYA projects when Federal funding ends? The American University researchers attempted to answer this by interviewing the project directors at UYA schools. These directors generally felt the UYA project would change in either the project itself (e.g., more flexibility, changes in number of volunteers), or the academic component (e.g., it would increase), or the volunteer's involvement (terms of service: part- or full-time; stipends; reasons for joining).

Table 8 rates fund sources when government grants cease at the end of the UYA cycle, and the number of project directors that indicated use of such sources. The researchers concluded:

> The thrust of this study indicates that the major sources for future funds will be much the same as the present, only redistributed. They will still include the educational institution, the sponsoring agency, financial aid, and, instead of ACTION, federal grants (American University, 1975).

In 1971 an experimental Resource Learning Center was established to capitalize on the experience and success of the first group of five year schools and the first group of three year schools which had just ended their UYA program cycle, plus two other schools which had successfully institutionalized UYA programs. Thus, 13 out of 18 schools had UYA programs with an emphasis on poverty still in operation without ACTION support money. It was felt that these schools provided a valuable resource of information on how to set up and operate a UYA program.

The University of Kentucky was awarded a $100,000 grant to set up a service-learning resource center for Region IV. This Center was originally set up to consist of 10 conferences conducted over the course of one year on technical training for any school in Region IV states. Advice, materials (library resources), training and on-site technical assistance were to be provided free of charge to any school trying to institute a UYA program.

In general, if this Resource Learning Center is successful and does help establish new UYAs and/or improve already operating ones, the investment of $100,000 will have been a good one. An evaluation of the Center experiment is scheduled for later this year.

FY 78 Objectives and Milestones of UYA call for an improvement in the quality of management for the UYA program by providing such technical assistance as in-service training, management skill training to project directors and regional staff, and support to universities in developing other sources of funding.

TABLE 1

Phase I	Phase II
University of Nebraska	Kent State University
Pepperdine College	Texas Southern University
University of Wisconsin	University of Kentucky
University of Colorado	University of Alabama
University of Massachusetts	University of Vermont
Eastern Washington State College	University of Pennsylvania
Western Washington State College	Queens College
Howard University (consortium)	University of Missouri
	Malcom X College
	Idaho State University
	Cochise College
	Pitzer College
	Johnston College (University of Redlands)
	North Dakota State University

TABLE 2

FY	Amount	Change	Vol. Years/Grants
1971	$1,193,515	---	100/9
1972	4,244,000	+3,050,485	567/25
1973	8,779,000	+4,535,000	1238/44
1974*	7,102,000	-1,677,000	1900/55
1975	6,453,000	- 649,000	1661/59
1976	6,036,000	- 417,000	2116/69
1977*	4,958,000	-1,078,000	?/65

*Planned allocations, but not necessarily the actual amount granted.

TABLE 3

Reason	#
1. UYA was an extension of field-centered programs already in existence	13
2. UYA fit basic philosophy and goals of school	11
3. UYA was to be a model for school's interest in experiential learning	9
4. Funding for university and project	5
5. An attractive program and good opportunity for students	4
6. Urging or request from community	3

7. Individual faculty members supported UYA and saw it as vehicle for personal concerns	2
8. New president interested in establishing a regional university and UYA taken on as distinct identity for institution	1
9. Publicity good for school	1
10. To bring university into special purpose designation to get money from state legislature	1

TABLE 4

Primary Reason	% Phase I	% Phase II	% Total
Further a career	16.2	27.9	20.8
Broaden experience	53.1	52.9	53.0
Participate in new experiment	2.0	2.7	2.3
Useful skill to offer	2.4	1.0	1.9
Relieve monotony	2.4	2.0	2.3
Involve university in community	4.2	3.7	4.0
Financially attractive	.7	.7	.7
Duty as citizen	.7	---	.4
Recommended by advisor	.4	---	.3
Friend's interest in program	12.2	---	7.4
Other	.7	5.8	2.7
No answer	4.9	3.4	4.3

TABLE 5

Reason	Very Important	Important	Un-Important
To gain some practical experience in my chosen college major or probable career	76%	20%	4%
To develop some desired skills and abilities	66%	28%	6%
To help finance my way through school	22%	39%	39%
To obtain an experience which might be helpful in admission to grad school	29%	36%	35%
To provide a needed service for the alleviation of some poverty-related problem	45%	41%	14%
To provide a break from the usual academic situation	32%	36%	32%

TABLE 6

Phase I - Volunteer Self-Assessment

	# of Respondents			
	Excellent	Good	Fair	Poor
Understanding causes & conditions of poverty:				
a. before UYA	19	44	53	14
b. after UYA	58	63	4	0
Understanting agency:				
a. before UYA	6	9	44	68
b. after UYA	86	37	4	1
Mastering skills and techniques				
a. before UYA	4	36	49	39
b. after UYA	59	64	6	0

TABLE 7

Reasons	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
I feel I am learning more practical or applied knowledge than I would in a comparable period in the classroom	75%	18%	4%	2%	1%
I feel I am learning more theoretical or conceptual knowledge than I would in a comparable period in the classroom	27%	33%	20%	15%	5%
I have a better idea of my career goals	54%	31%	12%	2%	1%
I am learning more about myself than I anticipated	46%	33%	15%	4%	2%

TABLE 8

Source	# Respondents
University or college	21
Agencies	22
Financial aid, including CWSP	3
College Work Study Program	10
Combine program with Cooperative Education Program	2
Federal grants	9
State legislature	5
Private foundations	8
Private donor	1
City and county sources	5
Alumni contribtions to stipend	1
Mini-grants	1
Industry	1

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AN EVALUATION STUDY OF INSTRUCTIONAL GROUP EFFECTIVENESS AND THE KEY VOLUNTEER LEADER CONCEPT

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We are all frequently involved as participants and/or instructors of groups composed of adult professionals or volunteer leaders. We sometimes wonder about the effectiveness of the instructional group and when using instructional tools we wonder about their effectiveness. In so doing we try to analyze the situation in an attempt to understand the factors that influenced the process and the outcome.

An instructor usually has preconceived expectations as to what he wants the group to accomplish. He has some hopes and expectations of what the session will be like. Participants, too, come to the session with their hopes and expectations. The expectations of the instructor and the participants are based partly on previous experiences in similar groups. The instructor and participants in a meeting or workshop enter the instructional situation as individuals with unique personalities. Their personalities influence personal needs and expectations in the group situation. Given that the instructor and the participants come to a group meeting or workshop with certain expectations that may or may not be similar, how is their behavior affected if what they perceive to be happening in the session is quite different from what they expected? What does this do to the effectiveness of the group in terms of accomplishing its goal or task?

When studying instructional groups two important components of group life need to be considered, these are cognitive and affective. They are also called task and social-emotional. In the theoretical framework of this study they are called work and emotionality. These two components are important on the part of both the individual and the group in an interacting instructional group.

The purposes of this study were to: (1) test an aspect of the Work-Emotionality Theory to determine the possible predictive association of group relevant aspects of personality and learning achievement and satisfaction in adult instructional groups, (2) test the effectiveness of four audio-visual instructional units designed to train volunteer leaders of youth, (3) test the idea of training key volunteer 4-H leaders in youth development content who in turn would work with other volunteer 4-H leaders in training situations.

The Work-Emotionality Theory provided the underlying framework for this study. The Theory was originally developed by Bion as a result of extensive work with therapy groups at Tavistock Clinic [Bion, 1961]. Thelen and associates at the Human Dynamics Laboratory added certain modifications and refinements to Bion's original theory as they operationalized the theoretical framework in their work with laboratory training groups [Thelen, 1959]. The underlying assumption of this theory is that individuals have certain predispositions to deal with stress in social interaction. Thelen postulated that the individual factors in personality will be categories descriptive of stresses to which individuals are sensitive and of means individuals use to deal with stress [Thelen, 1958]. These categories represent group-relevant aspects of personality. They also describe the modes of operation or culture of the interacting group.

WORK EMOTIONALITY CATEGORIES:

Thelen and associates as they refined Bion's theory identified five types of emotionality and divided the concept of work into four levels [Thelen, 1958]. The types of emotionality are fight, flight, pairing, dependency, and counter-dependency. Boyd and associates at the Adult Education Laboratory, at the University of Wisconsin, operationalized counter-dependency and conceptualized counter pairing [Boyd, 1963].

The six types of emotionality briefly defined are:

Fight - expressions of hostility and aggression.

Flight - expressions of avoidance of the problem or withdrawal from participation.

Pairing - expressions of warmth, intimacy, and supportiveness.

Dependency - expressions of reliance on some person or thing external to the membership.

Counter-dependency - expressions of concern over threat to personal autonomy resulting from reliance upon one of a group of individuals for direction, upon subject matter, or upon a rigid methodology.

Counter-pairing - expressions which indicate that there is a desire for formality, detachment, or simply a rejection of any pairing or friendliness with others [Boyd and associates, 1963].

The concept of work was divided into four levels by Thelen and his research team as follows:

Work Level 1 - is personally need-oriented and unrelated to group work.

Work Level 2 - is maintaining or routine in character. It may involve attempting to define a task, searching for methodology, clarifying already established plans, and the like.

Work Level 3 - is group-focused work that introduces some new ingredient: active problem solving.

Work Level 4 - is highly creative, insightful, and integrative. It often enterprets what has been going on in the group and brings together in a meaningful way a series of experiences [Thelen and associates, 1958].

Recognizing that the instructor and his behaviors, the individual participant and his behaviors, and the total group and its behaviors, are three important components that influence what happens in an instructional group. They were the dimensions looked at in this study in the context of work and emotionality concepts [Lueder, 1971].

The group relevant aspects of personality in terms of the six emotionalities in combination with four work levels formed the basis of determining participant's preferences for individual and group behaviors. The same variables were used to determine perception of the group situations as perceived by participants. The similarity or dissimilarity factor between preference and perception in terms of work and emotionality variables, known as congruence, was the independent variable. The extent of congruence or incongruence were the independent variables, and learning achievement, and satisfaction in the instructional group were the dependent variables. Statistical techniques were used to determine strength of association.

DESIGN

This study involved a four-by-four experimental design. There were four groups of ten people each that met in the same groups for four different instructional sessions. The participants were randomly assigned to the four instructional groups. The two variables that were different from session to session were content unit and instructor. Each group was presented with and involved in discussion of the same content unit at the same time and in the same order for the four sessions of the workshop. The instructors were assigned in a restrictively random manner so that each instructor taught each content unit to one of the four groups and each of the instructors met with each group once during the course of the workshop. By using this approach, the order of the instructor was different for each group and the order of content units was the same for each group.

A diagram of the design specifying group, content, unit, and instructor follows:

Diagram of Design Here

PARTICIPANTS

Forty volunteer 4-H leaders were either selected by Extension youth agents or volunteered to participate in the two-day workshop. The learners ranged in age from 27 to 57. The lowest level of education attained, as indicated by the number of years of formal schooling, was high school and the highest was high school plus five years.

CONTENT UNITS

The content units which provided the basic instruction were audio-visual, in the form of slide tape sets. The format was cartoon characters on slides with narration and background music on tape. Each slide tape set was approximately 14 minutes in length. The following units of the Passport to Leadership series were used:

1. Purpose of Youth Programs - presents three important reasons for existence and continuance of youth programs.
2. Using Community Resources - includes an elaboration of the program planning process as a method of identifying needed resources. Securing and sustaining resources are also discussed.
3. Growth and Development of Youth - shows the pattern and sequence of five dimensions of development for six life stages—infancy through adolescence.
4. Values - identifies the nature and function of a value system, the ways values are acquired and four techniques for fostering value development.

DATA GATHERING

Participants completed three questionnaires prior to the workshop. The purpose of the questionnaires was to determine the participant's preference for work and emotionality behaviors in an instructional group on the part of himself, the instructor, and the group. At the end of each instructional session the individual's perception of what the group situation had been was determined. These scores were used to determine the extent of similarity or difference between preference and perception.

Learning achievement was determined by giving 15 item pre and post objective tests administered at the beginning and end of each session. A satisfaction instrument was also administered at the end of each session.

One year after the workshop a follow-up survey of participants and Extension agents was conducted to determine their feelings regarding the workshop experience and the success and difficulties encountered in teaching other leaders.

FINDINGS

The findings of this study did not provide evidence to support a predictive association between group relevant aspects of personality and the learner's achievement and satisfaction at the .05 level of statistical significance. There was a range of associations from very weak to moderately strong in both positive and negative directions. The trends observed appear to indicate a differential effect of the content unit, the instructor, and the group. This indicates the importance of considering all three when evaluating the effectiveness of instructional groups for learning achievement and satisfaction. It was found that Instructor D had a consistently different affect on the relationship between preference-perception, and learning achievement, and satisfaction. It was observed that Group III was consistently different in strength and direction of relationships through all four sessions regardless of content and instructor. This would appear to indicate that the group had a stronger affect than the instructors or the content. The analysis by session indicated that session IV had a consistent affect regardless of instructor or group. This is an indication of the influence of the content unit. In this case the content unit was Values.

The important considerations in evaluating the effectiveness of adult instructional groups appear to involve both the cognitive and affective components in this case called work and emotionality. It appears that the instructor, the content, and the group can have a differential affect on the outcome. Consideration of all of these factors appears to be important when looking at instructional group effectiveness.

Knowledge gain was determined by a pre and post 15 item objective test given at the beginning and end of each instructional session. The following are the test score results for the forty participants by Passport to Leadership units:

Purpose of Youth Programs	Average Pre-Test Score	8.15
	Average Post-Test Score	10.63
	Average Gain Score	2.48
Using Community Resources	Average Pre-Test Score	10.75
	Average Post-Test Score	11.65
	Average Gain Score	.90
Growth and Development of Youth	Average Pre-Test Score	8.80
	Average Post-Test Score	10.20
	Average Gain Score	1.40
Values	Average Pre-Test Score	7.05
	Average Post-Test Score	10.70
	Average Gain Score	3.65

Observing these results indicates that the knowledge gain by participants from two of the four content units was very limited. It should be pointed out that the participants were not a random sample of 4-H leaders but a selected sample. They were neither new to the 4-H program, nor were they representative of the total 4-H leaders. With a typical group of leaders or new leaders the knowledge gain results may have been different.

FOLLOWUP SURVEY ON KEY LEADER CONCEPT

As indicated earlier one of the purposes of this study was to test the idea of training key volunteer 4-H leaders in youth development content who would return to their county and work with other volunteer 4-H leaders in training situations. Key leaders would use the audio-visual content units used at the workshop in which they were participants.

To assess the results of this objective 4-H agents in counties where participants lived and the participants were surveyed one year after the workshop. Responses from agents indicated considerable variation in what they had done to facilitate the functioning of key leaders.

The survey revealed that the idea of training key leaders in youth development content by using the audio-visual units had a substantial impact on county leader training programs. Key leaders, during the year following the training workshop, were involved in 54 meetings with an approximate attendance of 953.

The majority of agents responded that they felt that the units were excellent teaching tools for use by key leaders. They indicated that the greatest educational value was the discussion by leaders after viewing the unit. The discussion gave leaders an opportunity to relate the concepts in the content units to their own 4-H club situation. It helped them to realize that their leadership involved effective ways of working with youth in addition to knowing a specific skill.

Some of the difficulties reported by agents as they worked with key leaders were:

1. Key leaders lacking confidence that they could effectively teach other adults.
2. Availability of time on the part of key leaders to organize and conduct meetings.
3. Lack of sufficient understanding on the part of key leaders in timing of discussion and teaching techniques.

Teaching techniques and practice in planning meetings were not major emphases during the workshop for key leaders.

RESULTS OF PARTICIPANT SURVEY

The follow-up survey of the key leaders one year after the workshop was designed to determine their feelings regarding the experience, the success and difficulties they encountered in teaching other adult leaders. The survey also gave them an opportunity to indicate specific behavioral changes in ways they work with youth as a result of the workshop experience.

Thirty-five of the forty workshop participants returned the mail survey. Their responses included important changes they felt they had made in their behavior as they worked with youth.

A sample of the participant responses follows:

1. "It has made me aware that each child is an individual and thus has his own individual problems at different stages of development."
2. "I have become more tolerant with kids, I let them talk more and I listen more."
3. "I have tried to let the children do more themselves and I stay in the background."
4. "I share responsibilities with youth more than I did before."
5. "I guide young people now rather than dictate to them."

These responses and others like them provide evidence that the Passport to Leadership units taught in the workshop setting not only increased knowledge but also caused behavioral change on the part of the key 4-H leaders as they worked with youth.

Three specific factors were mentioned most frequently when asked about difficulties they encountered in carrying out their role as key leaders teaching other adults. The limitation of time was mentioned most often. Mentioned next most often as difficulties were getting leaders together for meetings and helping leaders they were working with relate the content to their actual local 4-H club situations.

SUMMARY DISCUSSION

The uniform lack of statistically significant results in the predictive association between congruence measures of work and emotionality categories and learning achievement and satisfaction could have resulted from limitations of the study. There was a limitation on the potential for knowledge gain on the part of many participants. The knowledge level of the participants with regard to the content of the units was relatively high. Another limitation was that the participants turned out to be a relatively homogeneous group. There was not a wide range of differences in their preference and perception of the instructional group situation in work and emotionality terms. What may have happened was that situations they perceived were very similar to those they preferred.

The use of an experimental design in a workshop setting is an appropriate one to test audio-visual tools for knowledge gain. In this case it also provided the opportunity to look at other variables, related to instruction, in addition to knowledge gain. It helped to point out that at different times the instructor, the group, and the content were strong influences.

The idea of training key 4-H leaders to teach other volunteer 4-H leaders content that relates to working with youth, as well as project related information,has potential. This is supported by this study as well as one conducted by Gast [Gast, 1976]. In a study comparing key 4-H leaders as teachers with Extension professionals when measured by the satisfaction of 4-H leaders as learners he found that there was very little difference in the satisfaction expressed by learners.

Advantages of involving key 4-H leaders in teaching other adults are that it can multiply the affect of the professional, and it can increase program effectiveness. Several factors that appear necessary for maximum effectiveness of the approach should be noted. As professionals we need to be realistic about the amount of time key 4-H leaders are willing and able to devote to training other adults. Facilitating the organization and planning of group situations can help key leaders make the most efficient use of their time. Providing teaching tools and discussion guides that are easy for key leaders to use will help them develop confidence and increase their effectiveness. For those competent in subject matter, training, and practice in process skills can be helpful in developing the key leader's self-confidence.

Appropriate tools, training, support, and the selection of people with enthusiasm can do much to further implement the idea of key 4-H leaders helping other adult 4-H leaders be successful.

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Diagram of Design is included on page 3.

Time	Group I N=10	Group II N=10	Group III N=10	Group IV N=10
Friday 1:30 - 4:30 p.m.	A W	B W	C W	D W
Friday 6:30 - 9:30 p.m.	B X	D X	A X	C X
Saturday 8:30 - 11:30 a.m.	C Y	A Y	D Y	B Y
Saturday 1:00 - 4:00 p.m.	D Z	C Z	B Z	A Z

Instructors = A,B,C,D
Content Units = W,X,Y,Z

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THE DEVELOPING ROLE OF EVALUATION
IN THE
HANDS UP VOLUNTEER CRIME REDUCTION PROGRAM

Mary Jean Houde (General Federation of Women's Clubs)
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INTRODUCTION

The General Federation of Women's Clubs in its HANDS UP volunteer crime prevention program has adapted an approach to evaluation suggested by Empey [Empey, 1977] which enables the volunteer to use evaluation to monitor progress on a practical basis. The approach also makes suitable allowance for the more sophisticated aspects of evaluation which make sociometric activities so difficult.

In the HANDS UP approach, the volunteer project leader concentrates on those elements of monitoring and control which are essential to the proper management of any large activity. The project leader is primarily concerned with the establishment and the realization of a clearly stated objective. See Figure 1. It is not always clear, however, that the objective when realized will result in crime reduction. Better education, for example, might make one potential criminal into a good citizen. It might make another into a better thief. Nothing can be taken for granted in evaluation. Accordingly, the analysis of the assumptions relating the specific project objective to the more general goal of crime reduction is planned to be handled by professional demographers from the university community. See Figure 2.

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Figures 1 and 2 About Here

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It is appropriate that the General Federation of Women's Clubs structure an evaluative component that combines both of the important elements of action and scholarship. The Federation has cooperated closely with the university community through the National University Extention Association and its Community Development Division for over fifteen years in the training of volunteers in the Community Improvement Program. Among other long term joint university/Federation activities is the GFWC/ESA planned reading program.

The evaluation methodology that is described in this paper is a new and developing one. Hence, much of the detail is tentative and is subject to modification as the concepts are tested in practice. Ten Pilot Evaluation Projects (PEP Projects) have been selected as test vehicles for the evaluation mechanism which will be developed and closely monitored in the coming year. See the letter from Federation President Wagner announcing the projects - Exhibit 3.

Figure 3 About Here

BACKGROUND

On July 23, 1975, the General Federation of Women's Clubs was awarded a Law Enforcement Assistance Administration (LEAA) grant, the purpose of which is described as follows: "The program is designed to increase the involvement of the citizen in crime prevention through the establishment of a network of local action groups across the country. A national media presentation emphasizing the role of the citizen in crime prevention and criminal justice will be used to trigger community discussions and to inform citizens of the range of crime prevention programs they can become involved in." [U. S. Department of Justice, 1975].

The HANDS UP program was initiated with an attitude and opinion survey of private social service agencies, federated club members, and the general public. In January 1976 a national meeting was held in Washington, D. C. and attended by approximately 90 state HANDS UP Chairmen from every state except Hawaii but including the District of Columbia. In addition, on the order of 100 criminal justice professionals and involved citizens from various parts of the nation participated exemplifying a purposeful mix of citizen interests. Partial support for the meeting was provided by private industry.

The individual state chairmen were urged to schedule organizational meetings within their own states in order to initiate their own statewide HANDS UP campaigns to be built around a crime prevention week proclaimed either locally or statewide. Corpus Christi, Texas, for example, set aside the full month of April 17 - May 17, 1975 as HANDS UP month.

Media involvement to increase citizen awareness is an important part of the HANDS UP activity. A complete professional advertising and promotion package and guidance material on how to work with the media were developed. This is, however, of only peripheral interest in the present discussion aspect of the program and will not be described in detail.

By the end of the first year of activity, most states were making plans for their HANDS UP programs. A number of states, notably Connecticut, New Mexico, Texas, and the District of Columbia, had held organizational meetings and were moving on to the establishment of local projects often in cooperation with the state criminal justice planning agency.

The second year grant was awarded to cover the period September 7, 1976 through September 6, 1977 and its activities, in the words of the grant: "will focus on procedural aspects of organizing the GFWC membership and communities in which programs are to be implemented into a unified and well recognized crime prevention force..." [U. S. Department of Justice, 1976].

Since the complete statement of the project describes it as a follow-on to the work of the preceeding year. The objectives remain as quoted earlier.

Five major program areas were established and, in an evaluation pamphlet prepared for the volunteer groups [General Federation of Women's Clubs, Evaluation Guide, 1975] these program areas were described in detail:

- Adult Crime Prevention and Reduction - primarily concerned with the problems created by the adult law breaker in society
- Juvenile Crime Prevention and Reduction - primarily concerned with the problems created by the juvenile behavior problem and/or law breaker in society
- Adult Corrections - concerned with the adult offender who is under the cognizance of the criminal justice system
- Juveniles in the Justice System - concerned with the juvenile who is for some reason under the cognizance of the juvenile justice system - involves courts, detention, and service components
- Court-Related Programs - concerned with the operations of the criminal courts which deal primarily with adults and the effects of legislation upon crime and the criminal justice system.

In addition, a large number of suggestions were made available to the clubwomen through a Project Idea Guide [General Federation of Women's Clubs, Project Idea Guide, 1975] prepared as a companion pamphlet to the Evaluation Guide. The Project Idea Guide calls the attention of the volunteer to such well established projects as the "Neighborhood Watch" of the National Sheriff's Association, "Operation Identification," and the "War Against Rape" supported by a number of organizations including the St. Louis based Women's Crusade Against Crime.

THE PIONEER EVALUATION PROJECTS

The Pioneer Evaluation Projects were selected from among applicant projects taking into consideration the desirability of geographic diversity and diversity of the types of problems and of the communities. A brief review of the initial experiences in the defining and planning for some of these projects will provide insight into the questions that must be given consideration.

The action evaluations activity for the "Battered and Abused Women Project" of the Brambleton Junior Woman's Club of Roanoke, Virginia is shown in Exhibit 4. Note that the emphasis in the volunteer program is upon the establishment of the operational emergency shelter for abused women. Evidently, the services at the shelter should respond not only to the immediate needs of the women and their children but should also include response and guidance to the women with regard to their emotional and legal needs. There is, then, an important dimension to the project beyond that concerned with bricks and mortar.

- -

Figure 4 About Here

- -

A cursory review revealed that comparatively little is known of the dimensions of the abused women problem and that the Justice Department-sponsored investigations into this area are in an early development stage. An analytic evaluation, without more planning data, could become a sociological research program in its own right rather than - as intended - an activity directly related to and supportive of the project. It appears premature to initiate the activity. Instead, exploratory steps are in process to establish an associated activity designed to provide more insight into the characteristics and experiences of the specific target population - the battered and abused women who come to the attention of the justice system in Virginia's 23rd District. In addition, inquiries and a literature search have been initiated to locate related investigations.

Figure 5 is an initial attempt at diagramming the analysis for the Roanoke Project. The emphasis in the crime control program is upon crime reduction however difficult it may be to either achieve the goal or to show a causal relationship between the project and the goal. The difficulty of the task outlined in Figure 5 will be readily appreciated by the experienced analyst. There may be some concern about the wisdom of the project proceeding on an interim basis without a parallel analytic component. No one, however, will question the desirability of a safe haven for abused women confronted with domestic violence. Similarly, few will question the wisdom of proceeding very carefully with a very difficult analysis.

- -

Figure 5 About Here

- -

The Penninsula Program, also in Virginia is quite different from that just described in that it involves seven separate projects in Virginia's 7th and 8th court districts all involved with the juvenile justice system. Refer to Figure 6.

- -

Figure 6 About Here

- -

Figures 7 and 8 show the action and analytic evaluations associated with Task Force 2 which is concerned with leisure time activities. The practicability is presently being discussed of having Task Force 5, which is concerned with the courts, function also as an interface between the program as a whole and the university-based analytic activity.

Figures 7 and 8 About Here

CONCLUSION

The methodology described is still in its initial stages and is currently being developed and tested in ten very different projects in widely separated locations. The present material represents a simplified overview of a very large activity and, in addition, is subject to change as members of the organizational elements involved contribute to the developing concepts.

A three way HANDS UP relationship is seen as developing in the individual states with the local coalition of volunteer and civic groups as one element, the analysts in the universities as a second element, and the appropriate personnel of the state criminal justice planning agencies as the third element. The actual details of the evaluation methodology as it finally evolves will be influenced over the process of time by the contributions of each of these elements.

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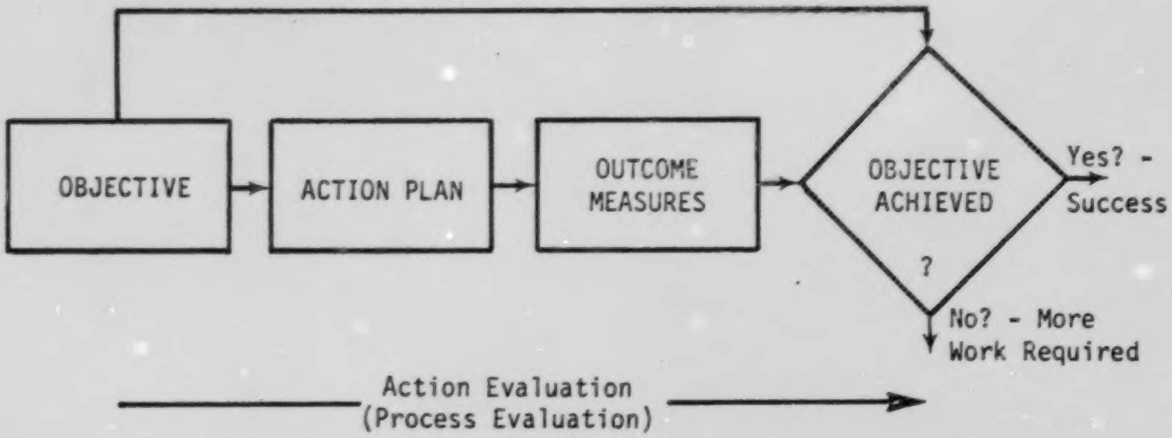
[2] U. S. Department of Justice, Law Enforcement Assistance Administration, Discretionary Grant Project Summary, Grant No. 75TA-99-0020, June 30, 1975.

[3] U. S. Department of Justice, Law Enforcement Assistance Administration, Discretionary Grant Project Summary, Grant No. 75TA-99-0031, September, 1976.

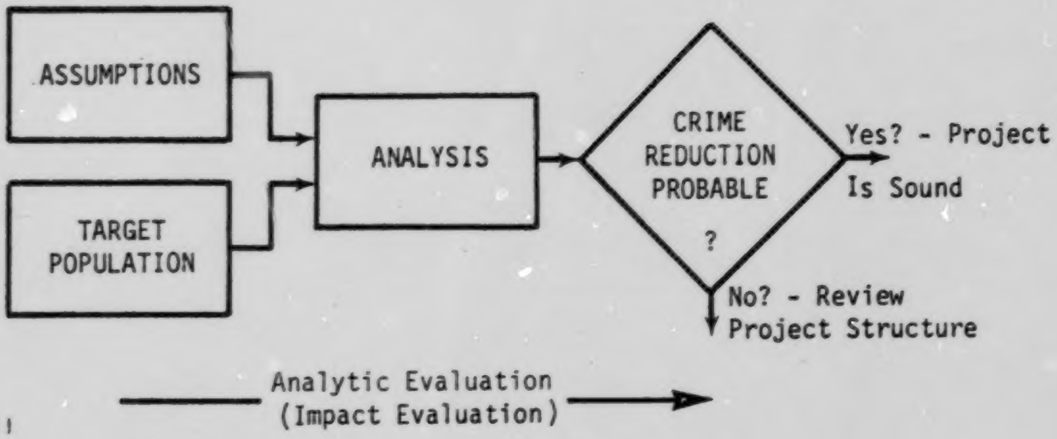
[4] General Federation of Women's Clubs, *Evaluation Guide*, HANDS UP Project Office, General Federation of Women's Clubs, 1728 N Street, N.W., Washington, D. C. 20036, 1975.

[5] General Federation of Women's Clubs, *Project Idea Guide*, HANDS UP Project Office, General Federation of Women's Clubs, 1728 N Street, N.W., Washington, D. C. 20036, 1975.


OBJECTIVE
ACTION PLAN
OUTCOME MEASURES
OBJECTIVE ACHIEVED ?
Yes? - Success
No? - More Work Required
Action Evaluation (Process Evaluation)

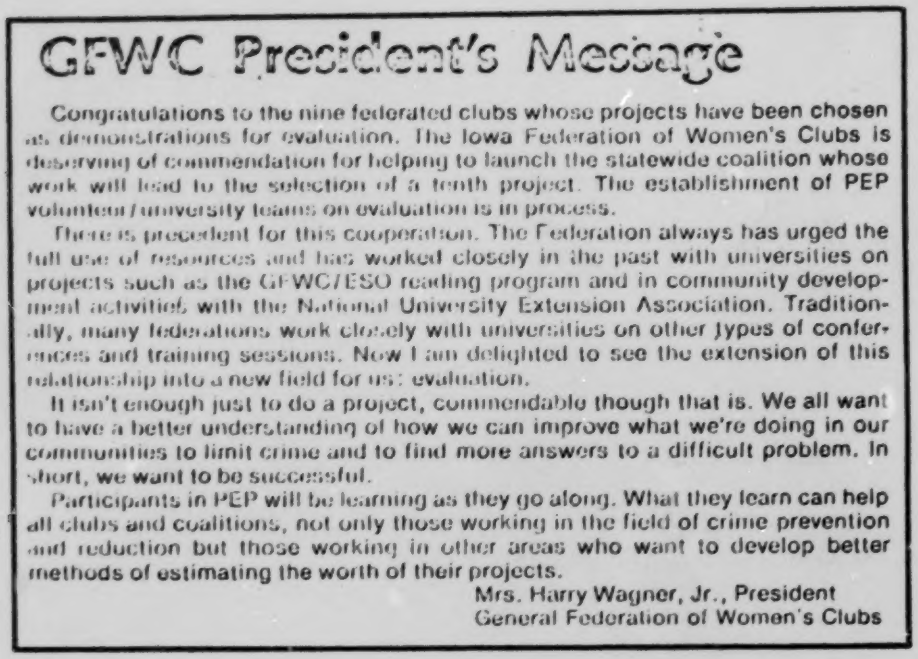
PROJECT MONITORING AND EVALUATION FOR THE VOLUNTEER PROJECT LEADER

Figure 1


ASSUMPTIONS
TARGET POPULATION
ANALYSIS
CRIME REDUCTION PROBABLE ?
Yes? - Project Is Sound
No? - Review Project Structure
Analytic Evaluation (Impact Evaluation)

PROJECT EVALUATION FOR THE PROFESSIONAL DEMOGRAPHER

Figure 2



GFWC President's Message

Congratulations to the nine federated clubs whose projects have been chosen as demonstrations for evaluation. The Iowa Federation of Women's Clubs is deserving of commendation for helping to launch the statewide coalition whose work will lead to the selection of a tenth project. The establishment of PEP volunteer/university teams on evaluation is in process.

There is precedent for this cooperation. The Federation always has urged the full use of resources and has worked closely in the past with universities on projects such as the GFWC/ESO reading program and in community development activities with the National University Extension Association. Traditionally, many federations work closely with universities on other types of conferences and training sessions. Now I am delighted to see the extension of this relationship into a new field for us: evaluation.

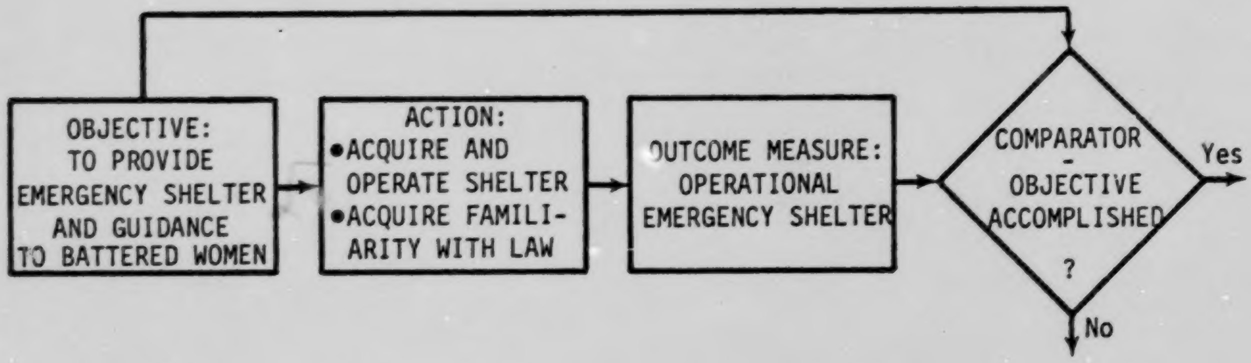
It isn't enough just to do a project, commendable though that is. We all want to have a better understanding of how we can improve what we're doing in our communities to limit crime and to find more answers to a difficult problem. In short, we want to be successful.

Participants in PEP will be learning as they go along. What they learn can help all clubs and coalitions, not only those working in the field of crime prevention and reduction but those working in other areas who want to develop better methods of estimating the worth of their projects.

Mrs. Harry Wagner, Jr., President
General Federation of Women's Clubs

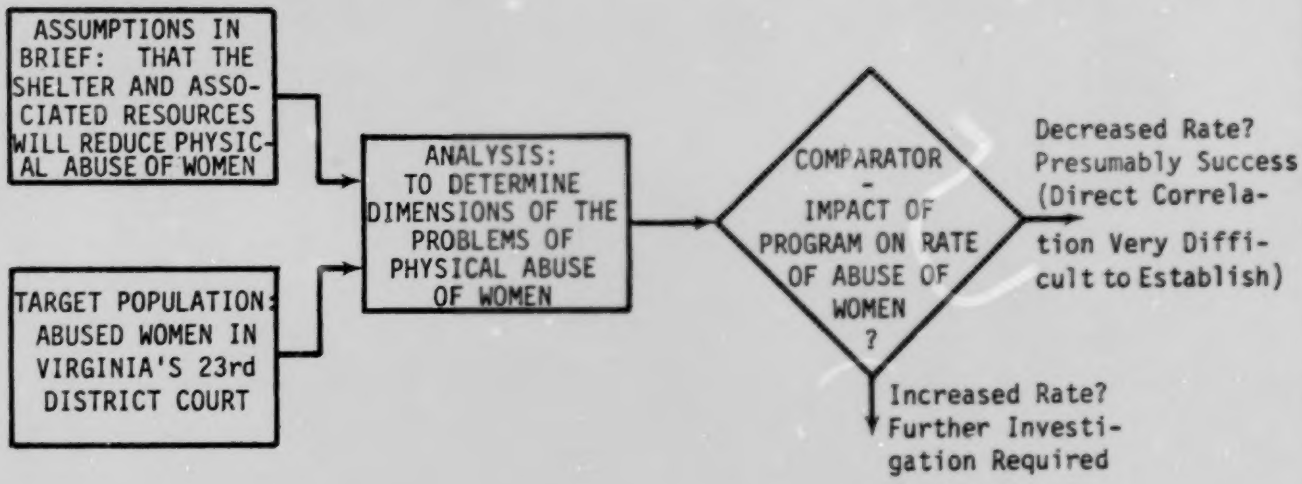
PRESIDENTS MESSAGE FROM THE HANDS UP NEWSLETTER FOR MARCH, 1977

Figure 3


OBJECTIVE:
TO PROVIDE
EMERGENCY SHELTER
AND GUIDANCE
TO BATTERED WOMEN
ACTION:
•ACQUIRE AND
OPERATE SHELTER
•ACQUIRE FAMILIARITY WITH LAW
OUTCOME MEASURE:
OPERATIONAL
EMERGENCY SHELTER
COMPARATOR
-
OBJECTIVE
ACCOMPLISHED
?
Yes
No

THE STEPS IN ACTION EVALUATION FOR THE ROANOKE PEP PROJECT

Figure 4


ASSUMPTIONS IN BRIEF: THAT THE SHELTER AND ASSOCIATED RESOURCES WILL REDUCE PHYSICAL ABUSE OF WOMEN
TARGET POPULATION: ABUSED WOMEN IN VIRGINIA'S 23rd DISTRICT COURT
ANALYSIS: TO DETERMINE DIMENSIONS OF THE PROBLEMS OF PHYSICAL ABUSE OF WOMEN
COMPARATOR - IMPACT OF PROGRAM ON RATE OF ABUSE OF WOMEN ?
Decreased Rate? Presumably Success (Direct Correlation Very Difficult to Establish)
Increased Rate? Further Investigation Required

See comments in text regarding the nuances in this evaluation activity.

AN INITIAL DEVELOPMENT OF THE STEPS IN ANALYTIC OR IMPACT EVALUATION FOR THE ROANOKE PEP PROJECT

Exhibit 5

OBJECTIVE

To provide a response to both the general and the specific needs of young people and so to direct them toward meaningful activities.

TARGET POPULATION

The target population is defined as all youths, male and female, between the ages of twelve and eighteen, living within the jurisdiction of the Juvenile Courts of the 7th and 8th Virginia Court Districts which include the cities of Newport News and Hampton.

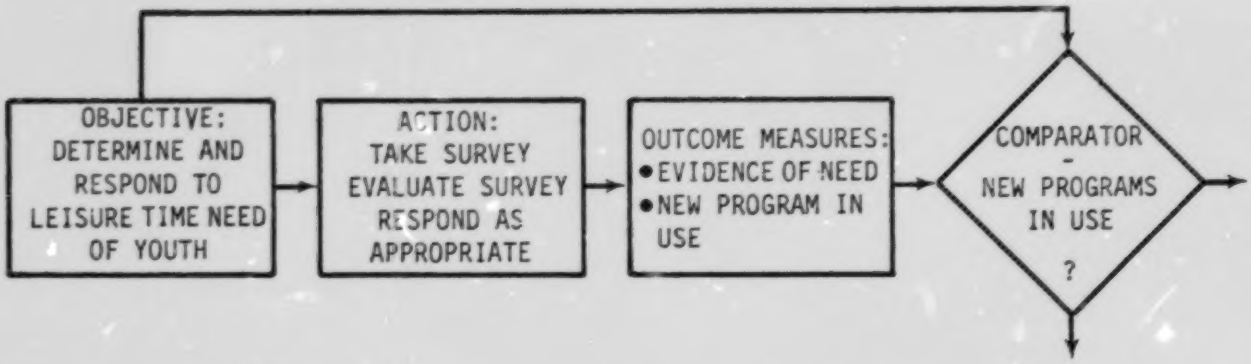
ACTION PLAN IN BRIEF

The action activities are developed under seven task forces which respond to questions as follows:

- Task Force 1: Where do we put a kid who has not place to go?
- Task Force 2: How can we combat the "Nothing-to-Do, Nowhere-to-Go" syndrome?
- Task Force 3: How can we help young people get jobs?
- Task Force 4: School programs for children with special needs cost money. How can we insure full funding for our school budgets this spring?
- Task Force 5: What can we do to help our juvenile courts to be more effective.
- Task Force 6: How can we provide opportunities for parent education.
- Task Force 7: How can families in need of help to get the right help at the right time.

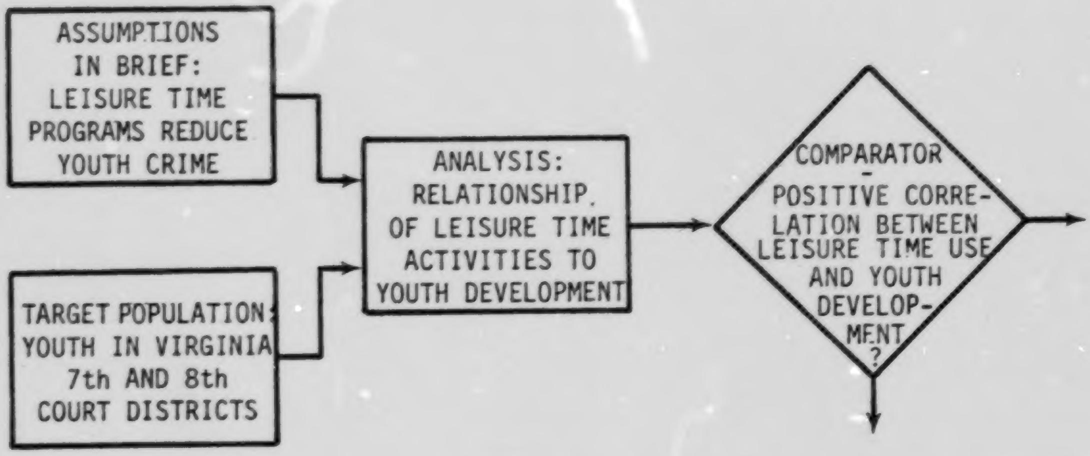
AN OVERVIEW OF THE VIRGINIA PENNINSULA PROGRAM

Figure 6


OBJECTIVE:
DETERMINE AND
RESPOND TO
LEISURE TIME NEED
OF YOUTH
ACTION:
TAKE SURVEY
EVALUATE SURVEY
RESPOND AS
APPROPRIATE
OUTCOME MEASURES:
• EVIDENCE OF NEED
• NEW PROGRAM IN
USE
COMPARATOR
-
NEW PROGRAMS
IN USE
?

THE STEPS IN ACTION EVALUATION FOR PENNINSULA TASK FORCE 2

Figure 7


ASSUMPTIONS
IN BRIEF:
LEISURE TIME
PROGRAMS REDUCE
YOUTH CRIME
TARGET POPULATION:
YOUTH IN VIRGINIA
7th AND 8th
COURT DISTRICTS
ANALYSIS:
RELATIONSHIP
OF LEISURE TIME
ACTIVITIES TO
YOUTH DEVELOPMENT
COMPARATOR
-
POSITIVE CORRE-
LATION BETWEEN
LEISURE TIME USE
AND YOUTH
DEVELOP-
MENT
?

NOTE: The positive correlation between leisure time youth activities and desirable development of youth may be developed on the basis of results obtained elsewhere than in Penninsula area.

THE STEPS IN ANALYTIC OR IMPACT EVALUATION
FOR PENNINSULA TASK FORCE 2

Figure 8

PREPARING VOLUNTEERS AND THOSE WHO MANAGE VOLUNTEERS

A. EVALUATION OF PROCEDURES FOR RECRUITING AND TRAINING VOLUNTEERS

A STUDY OF NEEDS AND ABILITIES OF 4-H LEADERS IN BOULDER COUNTY

Joan Camp, Extension Agent
Colorado State University and Boulder County Cooperating

THE PURPOSE

The purpose of this research was to gather information concerning 4-H related needs and abilities of Home Economics 4-H Leaders in Boulder County.

A second part of the purpose of this research was that of proposing potentially appropriate training activities which would make use of the leaders' abilities and interests beneficial to both the leaders and the Boulder County 4-H Program.

A careful study of both aspects of the purpose was necessary before any thought could be given to planning and preparing leader training that would be of value to the Home Economics 4-H Leaders of Boulder County.

SITUATION

A Home Economics 4-H Leader Training Program series was presented in the Spring of 1976 to Home Economics 4-H Leaders in Boulder County. It consisted of four sessions held on consecutive Wednesdays with both morning and evening program times offered. A local Home Economics 4-H Leader and the researcher planned and prepared these four sessions. For those who attended, it was felt the series was quite successuly, however, the actual turnout of leaders to the meetings was very low.

PROBLEM

The problem of this study was stated as follows: "Through what methods is it possible to find out more about the 4-H related needs and capabilities of leaders, so as to be able to establish better ways to train Home Economics 4-H Leaders in Boulder County?".

There was a very low attendance of Home Economics leaders at the Leader Training Series offered in April and May of 1976. This lack of attendance could have been the result of: Firstly, the timing may have been poor. which the writer felt might have been attributed to; (a) the series may have been held too late in the 4-H year to have been of much help to the leaders and/or (b) there may have been many other responsibilities and activities which made the Home Economics 4-H Leaders very busy with limited time they could spend in attending 4-H meetings.

Secondly, another factor contributing to the low attendance may have been that the leaders did not feel they needed the information that was presented in the leader training.

At the present time, it is possible that very few of the leaders in Boulder County have been actually trained at the county level to help them fulfill their specific responsibilities as leaders.

PROBLEM RATIONALE

As stated by Knowles (1970):

> The starting point in program planning is always the adults' interests, even though the end objective may be to meet his (and an institution's and society's) needs. In fact, perhaps the highest expression of the art of the adult educator is skill in helping adults to discover and become interested in their needs. But in order for him to have a chance to practice this art, he has first to reach them through their interests. (pp. 79-80)

Large, (1952) stated, "Training programs should be based on adult needs and interests, rather than on adult leaders' 'obligation to youth'" (Abstract).

In Priorities in Adult Education by Rauch, (1972), Helen Feeney indicated that in the training of 4-H Club Leaders, new leaders want:

1) explanation of their duties as 4-H Club leaders
2) information about the help available for doing the job
3) training to understand young people better and how to work with them
4) ideas about how to develop a recreation program
5) personal consultation with the professional leader
6) moral support from the trained personnel.

OBJECTIVES

The following were the objectives of this study:

1) To review literature dealing with needs, abilities, and training of volunteer 4-H Leaders.
2) To review and utilize some results of the paper "A SURVEY OF HOME ECONOMICS 4-H LEADERS, RELATING TO NEEDS, MOTIVATIONS, AND FUTURE PROGRAMMING IN BOULDER COUNTY", which was based on questionnaires sent to Boulder County Home Economics leaders by this writer in the Spring of 1976.
3) To meet with Home Economics Leaders in a community group.
4) To observe and tabulate the effectiveness of the MINIMAX activity in a small group of Home Economics 4-H Leaders.
5) To provide techniques to support the Leaders through training.

DEFINITIONS OF TERMS

MINIMAX is a method of matching of skills and needs of individuals or groups in relation to a definite problem using cards filled out by individuals to cross match these skills and needs by discussing these in a meeting.

Tunnel Vision is looking only at one's own ideas and viewpoints; being closed to opinions and ideas of others.

Volunteer Leader is an adult that contributes time and special competency to work with youth in the Cooperative Extension 4-H Program; an individual with influence who inspires confidence, is enthusiastic and understands and likes people and is able to adjust to change.

Leader Training is directing the growth of 4-H Leaders. Leaders learn by observing, reading, doing, listening, and conversing. The training can take place at planned meetings scheduled by the Extension Professional or can take place informally at the discretion of the 4-H Leader. It is a process of stimulating and supporting leader efforts to acquire knowledge and to develop attitudes and skills that will improve the quality of their performance in leader positions.

Needs of individuals (leaders) referred to in this paper relate to both basic human needs and to the needs of a 4-H Leader.

Motivation is an individual desire to produce or to act based on the needs of the individual and inducement or reward.

NEEDS ASSESSMENT

What is it that Boulder County Home Economics Leaders need? Why are these leaders contributing their time to the 4-H Program? Where did they find the time? Are they getting adequate training? Why did they become leaders? As leaders, do they have any goals?

Based on the assumption that what a person feels as a need is what will motivate him, Wilson (1976), it seemed apparent to the writer that an appraisal of the needs of the Home Economics Leaders in Boulder County should be undertaken.

As a result, in February, 1976, a survey, consisting of an introductory letter and a questionnaire, was sent to one hundred twenty-seven Home Economics 4-H Leaders in Boulder County by this writer. Seventy-three questionnaires were returned.

The purpose for sending out this questionnaire was twofold. One was to conduct a search for some general background information that would help in better understanding the leaders and their needs and the other was to reveal how the leader's answers on the questionnaire would be reported.

The questions asked on this questionnaire were as follows:

1) Why did you become a 4-H Leader?
2) How do you find the time to be a 4-H Leader?
3) Do you do other volunteer work? Where?
4) What have been your happiest experiences as a 4-H Leader?
5) How do you know you are doing a good job as a leader?
6) What do you hope to get out of working as a 4-H Leader?
7) How long have you been a 4-H Leader?
8) What is the approximate size of your club this year?

For purposes of this research paper, the writer realized that, prior to fulfilling 4-H related needs, the basic human needs of the leader must be considered. According to Knowles (1970), both basic or organismic needs and educational needs, have meaning for programs where adults are learning.

To further illustrate, Sabrosky (1953) said:

> I can see no other way to approach the training of local 4-H Leaders except in terms of their needs in doing what they are expected to do in 4-H Club work and in terms of their needs as human beings, as people. (p. 1)

What do volunteers want? To cite just a few items, Boyce (1972):

1. Increasing job satisfaction and significant responsibilities with advancements possible
2. Want to feel welcome but not pre-judged
3. Consultation and/or supervision
4. Positive interpersonal relationships with other volunteers and paid staff
5. To make a difference and to see the results from their effort
6. Response to constructive criticism
7. To know who to go to to ask questions
8. To volunteer for a job that is challenging, important and provides some new adventure
9. And to work with others in a group or at least have a chance to exchange ideas and concerns with others.

The following conclusions are supported by uniformly positive evidence from fifteen or more of the studies surveyed, Stogdill (1974). The average person who occupies a position of leadership exceeds the average member of his group to some degree in the following respects: 1. Sociability, 2. Initiative, 3. Persistence, 4. Knowing how to get things done, 5. Self-confidence, 6. Alertness to an insight into situations, 7. Cooperativeness, 8. Popularity, 9. Adaptability, and 10. Verbal facility (p. 62).

Sabrosky (1953) pointed out that the leaders themselves have stated that the following are their greatest problems, i.e., the ones with which they have not been given adequate assistance in the ordinary leader training program:

1. Getting community and parental cooperation.
2. Getting or holding the interests of members.
    (a) Especially of 15 to 20 year-olds.
3. Getting members to plan their own program.
4. Technical:
    (a) Training members in judging.
    (b) Training members in demonstrations.
    (c) Helping members complete project records. (p. 1)

Three areas of concern which were common to adult volunteers are mentioned by Sanders (1969):

1. A need for supportive information and advice at the beginning of their term of office.
2. Help in understanding children and adolescents.
3. For organizational leaders particularly, help in understanding how to work with other adults on a group basis. (p. 8)

Naylor (1973) believes that in order to develop relationships and work patterns, the staff must realize one essential factor, and that is to recognize the feelings of the volunteer. One important discovery, listed by Ward (1963) is this:

> People will not become involved unless they can vision themselves in a specific volunteer job which seems within their capabilities and stirs their idealixm. The successful recruiter helps the recruit toward this vision. People are searching for meaning in their lives. They need to be assured

> of their individual value, of the fact that their time and effort are worthwhile to society as a whole, as well as to their local groups and to themselves. With today's shorter working hours and increased leisure for a growing proportion of American workers, volunteer service may well become a strong a positive force for the mental health of the nation. There is apparently a strong theraputic value to be gained from voluntary service. (Abstract)

LEADER TRAINING

When conducting leader training, McGregor (1960) warned, "knowledge cannot be pumped into human beings the way grease is forced into a fitting on a machine. The individual may learn; he is not taught" (p. 211).

Thus the challenge of a trainer, according to Wilson (1976), is to assist others in their process of "becoming." She indicated that, "To do this, we must ourselves be constantly engaged in the exciting pursuit of new learnings and insights and must, at all costs, avoid 'tunnel vision' and be receptive to what we can learn" (p. 142).

By using the principles of andragogy we can do others a favor and benefit our program by how we choose to teach volunteer leaders. Beavers (1964) listed the following eight principles for teaching adults:

1. Adults must want to learn.
2. Adults will learn only what they feel a need to learn.
3. Adults learn by doing.
4. Adult learning centers on problems, and the problems must be realistic.
5. Experience affects adult learning.
6. Adults learn better in an informal environment.
7. A variety of methods should be used in teaching adults.
8. Adults want guidance (p. 37)

The Western Region 4-H Study Report (1967) mentioned that with the 4-H Program being as extensive as it is, it would be logical for a local leader to share responsibility with other--associate, assistant, and junior leaders, as well as with other local adults and parents. Each of these can take different responsibilities and with these responsibilities clearly defined, each leader will not need to attend training in all areas of training.

Also reported as important was a need for planning the leader-training program for several years ahead, or at least one year in advance.

The first basic training need identified by Sabrosky (1953) is helping leaders see what they do need and helping them realize what their job is, how it should be done, and what is involved in doing it.

One of the qualifications for leadership in character building organizations, according to Ward, (1963) was: "For the leader to have enough interest in the purpose of the organization to be willing to take training as needed".

For the leader to have this "interest" he/she must be motivated to the extent that he/she needs this interest for the sake of self-satisfaction, etc.

Schindler-Rainman and Lippitt (1971) and Rogers (1976) listed some of the steps an organization can take to ensure that a new volunteer will have a long, happy and successful period of service. They include:

1. Drawing up an individualized plan for the volunteer's on-the-job training including personal contacts, on-the-job support and literature that he will find particularly relevant.
2. Providing a budget item for the reimbursements of volunteers for conference registrations, materials and other such items, so that the volunteer who does not have great means of his own will be able to give of his resources, ideas, time, and service.
3. Offering a variety of activities, opportunities for change and growth in each, and a chance to move from one to another, are important factors in keeping a volunteer interested and motivated.
4. Having a place for volunteers to meet together socially.
5. Providing an ongoing reciprocal evaluation.
6. Making commitments for training and support are a must by both the volunteer and the agency or person with whom he/she works.

Also mentioned by Rogers (1976) was the opinion that the better trained the volunteer, the more effective the service he/she can render--and the more secure he/she will feel about the service he/she is giving. (p. 21-22).

It has been said that the power of a person is greater when he operates effectively in a group which requires these three necessary characteristics of its members:

1. There must be an awareness of unity on the pa-t of all its members.
2. There must be interpersonal relationships. Members must have a chance to contribute, learn from and work with others.
3. The members must have the ability to act together toward a common goal.

A community meeting, of the type mentioned in the writer's objective of this research peper, enables agents to have closer contact with leaders on a local level. If it is a smaller group meeting, leaders will be more likely to participate. The leaders will also have the feeling that agents are more interested in the local clubs and problems pertaining to them. Meetings of this type are recommended to be not more than two hours long.

SUMMARY OF THE LITERATURE

After reading the above, it would appear that leader training should be an important part of the Home Economics 4-H Program in Boulder County. First, however, it is imperative that the writer learn of the needs and interests of these volunteer Home Economics Leaders.

The literature suggested that the Leader Training should be approached in terms of leader's needs in doing what leaders are expected to do in 4-H Club work and interms of their needs as human beings.

Various areas of training for leaders were cited by the authors of the literature which was reviewed. In summary, these dealt with the following: 1) understanding the objectives of the 4-H Program; 2) being informed about working with children, adolescents and adults; 3) organizing a club; 4) conducting a meeting; 5) knowing what teaching methods to use with boys and girls; 6) knowing how to inform and work with people in the community; 7) obtaining supportive information and assistance from Extension Professionals and 4-H Leaders; 8) understanding expectations of extension professionals and 4-H members; and 9) getting training to help members in judging, demonstrating, completing projects and filling out records.

Also indicated by the authors was a need to teach leaders by using the principles of andragogy. We can contribute to the effectiveness of our 4-H Program by treating our 4-H Leaders as adults.

The feelings of a volunteer must be recognized. Although the training is important there is such a thing as presenting training too fast without providing adequate support and advice to leaders.

The literature emphasized that training should occur early in the first year of the program to be effective and be helpful to the program.

There must be a specific volunteer job before involvement can take place. Leader involvement depends somewhat on interest and time available. There may be a volunteer who would desire to help in 4-H for a short period of time as well as volunteers who choose to help for 10-25 years. The six steps listed by Schindler-Rainman and Lippitt (1971) and Rogers (1976) could be applied in either case to ensure that the volunteer will have a successful period of service.

If leader training is given to those who feel they need it, it would appear that the leaders will feel positively about leading their clubs and will feel personal satisfaction as a result.

AN ASSESSMENT TECHNIQUE LEADING TOWARD TRAINING ACTIVITIES

In May, following the Spring 1976 Home Economics Leader Training series and as a means to respond to the request of two Boulder leaders who had taken the May leader training series, plans were made to ask the Boulder, Louisville, Lafayette, Erie and Broomfield area Home Economics leaders to an informal gathering in East Boulder.

A letter from the Extension Office was sent to each leader in the communities involved. Each leader was also called on the telephone and asked to participate. Fifteen of a possible sixty leaders attended.

The first of these meetings was held as an informal, get-acquainted opportunity. Name tags and snacks were provided.

Included as the major thrust of the meeting was the implementation and use of MINIMAX, Scheier (1974). It was selected as a vehicle to help determine and match up the various needs and abilities of the leaders attending.

The leaders were each provided the opportunity to prepare a written list of their 4-H related Needs and Skills. After completing this activity, the participants were divided into two groups to match up those having the same skill and need based on their lists.

The MINIMAX activity was both a result of and a contributor to more and better communication between the leaders. The mutual sharing help the leaders received in the exchange provided enthusiasm for present and future growth for each leader in her involvement in the Boulder County 4-H Program.

As Sabrosky (1953) stated:

> What I have been trying to say is that we must look at these local leaders, not as just a part of the organization, a part of the machinery, not as replicas of ourselves with maybe a little less normal education or less time to do the work, but as a number of individuals, each of whom, voluntarily, will do what satisfies him, and who does not even himself recognize that he is doing only what satisfies him. Fortunately for volunteer work like 4-H Club work, Scout work, various charitable organizations, etc., many people in our culture get certain satisfactions for themselves in doing something for someone else. (p.4)

As a result of the success of this small leader's meeting, it was the idea of those attending that they meet again on July 19, 1976. The leaders present requested a short program on project record books.

CONCLUSIONS

1. People become Home Economics Leaders for a wide variety of reasons.
2. Because of the large number of varied needs that emerged from the questionnaire, there should be a variety of leader training approaches implemented in Boulder County for the Home Economics 4-H Leaders. As noted in the results of the February, 1976 survey, many of the leaders did other volunteer work. In view of this fact, if they are to spend their limited time and effort for the benefit of 4-H in Boulder County, there should be adequate training opportunities offered and available.
3. Leaders who were respondents to the February, 1976 survey indicated that they feld 4-H was a high priority item which justified the amount of time spent as a leader. Thus it appears essential the writer must provide sufficient and appropriate methods of leader training for the folunteer leaders.
4. The literature suggested that leader training be approached in terms of the leader's interests and needs, i.e., both 4-H special needs and basic human needs.
5. As indicated by the authors cited in the literature, there is a need to teach leaders by using the principles of andragogy.
6. Training should occur early in the first year of the program in order to be effective for the leaders and the total county 4-H program.
7. There must be a specific volunteer job before involvement by the leader can take place.
8. Various areas of training for leaders were cited by the authors of the literature reviewed. General areas mentioned consisted of the following: 1) understanding the objectives of the 4-H program; 2) being informed about working with children, adolescents and adults; 3) organizing a club; 4) conducting a meeting; 5) knowing what teaching methods to use with boys and girls; 6)

knowing how to inform and work with people in the community; 7) obtaining supportive information and assistance from Extension Professionals and 4-H leaders; 8) understanding expectations of Extension Professionals and 4-H members; and 9) getting training to help members in judging, demonstrating, completing projects and filling out records.

9. Meetings are a necessary and essential part of the local leader training program. A variety of teaching methods, or training methods should be used with adults. Adult leaders do have a variety of needs dependent upon their experience and tenure in the 4-H Program.
10. The MINIMAX activity pointed out some significant 4-H needs and skills of the leaders. The MINIMAX was a vehicle to help determine and match up the specific needs and abilities listed by each of the leaders attending the meeting. Since each leader listed a minimum of one skill and one need, and verbalized and discussed these skills and needs, each had the opportunity to become aware of the possibility of an exchange of information. Those who did participate in this MINIMAX exchange left the meeting with a feeling of having been useful and of also having been helped.
11. One study cited in the Review of Literature indicated that the leaders need specific information of 4-H Projects, judging and demonstrations.

RECOMMENDATIONS

As an outcome of the information presented in this paper, the writer has recommended the following leader training methods and activities as being appropriate for use in Boulder County:

1. Increased communication and involvement between the writer and the Boulder County Leader's Advisory Council. (Weaver (1975) There should be open communications between leaders and agents.)

2. Increased use of key leader involvement with county activities, i.e., -- Speech Arts Contest, 4-H Council, 4-H-In-Action, Achievement Night, etc. (Billings (1972), cited that there should be more opportunities in which to use leaders.)

3. Further establishment of the 4-H Resource Center at the Extension Office. This would include expanding the existing foods and clothing project suitcases and teaching aids and arranging all of them in one suitable location where they could be previewed and/or checked out by leaders or junior leaders. (The need for information about helps available to 4-H leaders, was indicated by one study in the Review of Literature as one item most commonly asked for in training by first year leaders.)

4. Encouragement of more small group discussions with Home Economics Leaders. This would be encouraged by the Extension Professional when talking with leaders in the Longmont, Mead, and Lyons communities. (As noted by Boyce (1972), leaders want positive interpersonal relationships with other volunteers and with paid staff. They also like to have a chance to exchange ideas and concerns with others.

5. Increased communication with leaders with the inception of a Leader Letter or leader page added to the newsletter. Articles could be written by key 4-H Leaders.

6. Creation and use of job descriptions for Organizational Leaders, Project Leaders and Junior Leaders. (The literature indicated that definitions of leader roles in terms of expectations from agents and members are necessary to a county program.)

7. Implementation of a 4-H Home Economics Master Leader Program. The Master Leader Program idea would be introduced at the small community leader's meetings by the Extension Professional who would ask for volunteers. A minimum of two Master 4-H Leaders representing each community would be desirable. (As cited by Boyce (1972), volunteers want to know the exact people to contact for needed specific information.)

8. Preparation of a Calendar of 4-H Events of Boulder County and State 4-H activities one year in advance for use by 4-H Clubs in Boulder County. The Leader's Advisory Council and leaders could help with this.

9. The preparation and distribution of an evaluation form within the next six months in which leaders could evaluate Extension and the Boulder County 4-H Program. (Periodic evaluation of a county's situation by Extension Professionals and 4-H Leaders is important.)

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PREPARING PROFESSIONAL AND VOLUNTEER STAFF FOR PROGRAMMING WITH ADOLESCENTS

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INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this paper is to discuss some factors found to be related to preparing professional and volunteer staff for programming with adolescents. This will be accomplished by reporting on a research project conducted within the 4-H program in Pennsylvania and Texas.

4-H is the youth serving segment of the Cooperative Extension Service, and arm of the United States Department of Agriculture and Land Grant Universities throughout the country. The 4-H program like some other youth and adult serving agencies is based on informal educational principles. Youth participating in the 4-H program acquire knowledge and skills primarily through the learning-by-doing method. This program is conducted through informal groups by volunteers who are supported by professional staff. Nationally the 4-H program reaches literally millions of youth through the leadership of volunteers.

4-H, like many out of school youth programs and organizations, includes youth ages 8 to 19. However, in 4-H and other organizations the major portion of the enrollment is below age 13 or 14. The fact that 4-H enrollments have not reflected the adolescent population has been a major concern.

This concern prompted the United States Department of Agriculture to fund a project conducted at The Pennsylvania State University and Texas A. & M. University. The purpose of the project was to determine and test methods of attracting and retaining adolescent youth. This paper will present project findings related to volunteer and staff development.

Organized groups and clubs fulfill some basic developmental needs for youth 8 to 12 years of age. These youth are just beginning to step beyond the home into the community. Friends and the companionship of age-mates are an important part of this wider world, and this age group seeks opportunities to be with their peers. Therefore, 8 to 12 year olds comprise an almost captive audience for 4-H and other youth organizations since group experiences are a natural accepted feature of this developmental stage.

Adolescence as a developmental stage presents a somewhat different picture. Adolescent youth as an audience constitute a challenge for those organizations that seek to involve them in programs. During adolescence the developmental process towards adulthood is approaching completion. For some, the opportunities provided by organized youth groups are no longer required. However, there are those adolescents who either are not yet ready to cope as individuals in the areas of social skills and therefore prefer organized groups for these settings, or for whom organized groups such as 4-H have become one of their interests that they pursue with vigor.

An earlier survey of current and former adolescent 4-H'ers indicated that the traditional adult 4-H leader role of teacher while quite appropriate with preadolescents is less so with adolescents. These young people require an adult who understands their current period of development and can support and advise their groups. The role of adult volunteers with adolescent youth groups is one of counselor/advisor rather than teacher/leader.

The term advisor seems to be suitable from two standpoints. The adults see their role more specifically and adolescents can accept adults more easily as an advisor rather than a leader. Adolescents view an advisor as one who meets with the group and facilitates its goals. Adolescents may regard a leader as one who directs a group; an authority figure.

NEEDS OF VOLUNTEER

Adult volunteers require assistance in growing into their roles as counselor/advisor. More importantly advisors must acquire a sensitivity and understanding of adolescence as a developmental stage. This is especially true if they had previously worked with younger youth - children and preadolescents. Adolescent youth in informal groups need adults to assist them in reaching their goals, but this age group requires an adult who will and can interact with them in a manner different from the manner in which adults interact with younger youth. Groups of younger youth react well to adults in a teacher/leader role. The youth "follow" the adult and have little input into programming. As youth progress into and through adolescence they are becoming ready to plan and conduct programs--to make decisions about these and other things. Volunteers who work with groups of adolescent youth need to be accepting of youth becoming able to make their own plans and decisions. In this way volunteers can bridge the gap between what youth can accomplish on their own and that with which the youth need adult assistance and support.

NEEDS OF STAFF

In new volunteer programming effort staff members require training in order to develop skills and obtain information. In addition, professionals who recruit, train, supervise, and support adult volunteers in their role as advisors to adolescent youth groups have some particular needs in order to carry out their roles.

Adolescence, as was pointed out earlier, is a developmental stage, quite different from childhood or preadolescence. Professionals need to not only have a solid knowledge base in youth development, but be able, and comfortable, transmitting this information to adults who work with adolescent youth. In addition professional staff need to understand the characteristics and motivations of adults, teaching methods, and helping skills. This knowledge and skills will help facilitate the staff's role in programming with volunteers.

Therefore, a training program was developed to prepare professionals, who in turn could prepare volunteers, who in turn could relate more effectively to the needs and interests of adolescents.

A curriculum was developed based on needs identified earlier. Extension Specialists from Pennsylvania, Texas, and Extension Service - 4-H, United States Department of Agriculture planned and conducted the program. Several teaching methods were used during a five day staff training including small group skill-developing activities. Content and methods were selected and arranged such that the training format could be used as a model. The participants then designed volunteer training based on the model.

Since the role of the volunteer with adolescent youth groups had been defined as counselor/advisor, interpersonal communication skills became the focal point for the staff training. Close to half of the training time was devoted to instruction and practice in skills such as listening, attending, and problem solving. In addition, sessions were devoted to youth development, strategies for programming with adolescents, and volunteer leadership development. Each participant completed a tentative plan for implementing adolescent programming in their communities. These plans included recruiting and training volunteers and strategies for conducting the program.

An outline of the staff training appears below:

Project Staff Training Model

- Orientation
- Rationale of Project
- Understanding Youth
    - Youth as a social category
    - Development
    - Socialization process
    - Research findings related to teen programming
- Interpersonal Communication Skills (helping skills)
- Leadership
    - Criteria for identifying individuals who relate well with teens
    - Supportive role of professional staff with volunteers
    - Leader training and counseling
- Program Planning
    - Behavioral model for working with youth
    - Teen involvement in program planning
    - Social action
- Program Approaches
    - An overview of possible program approaches
- Application of Training Model
    - Develop implementation plan for volunteer training model in individual counties
- Bibliography

FOLLOW-UP TRAINING

Another feature of the staff education program was the follow-up training and counseling that continued after the formal training. These informal sessions were conducted by Extension Specialists as a result of an immediate request or as part of regularly scheduled staff project meetings. As a result, staff were able to keep informed of what each was doing, share ideas, and resolve questions that emerged as the project progressed. This follow-up was found to be a very essential part of the staff development program.

In summary, the participants completed the training feeling quite positive about their experience. The program met the needs of the staff and with slight modification it could be duplicated for other staff.

It appears that of all the different content areas received by the participants, the helping skills areas had the greatest impact. This can be explained to some extent by the fact that nearly half of the training time was given to this area. Even with the emphasis on helping skills, the staff felt that more follow-up training was needed in all content areas. The participants believed for the most part that the in-service program prepared them for conducting an adult training program at the county level.

Evaluation of the training produced some concerns. Participants indicated the training presented "too much, too soon." It was suggested that the training be conducted in two shorter sessions rather than the one five-day session. The follow-up materials and sessions were helpful in reducing this concern. The group generally felt that there was a good mix of teaching methods utilized, but that more discussion time could be spent on problem solving, understanding youth, and programming with youth.

VOLUNTEER TRAINING

Participants in the staff training returned home to begin implementing their plans for adolescent programming. Their first task was to recruit volunteers and provide a training program for them.

The content of any volunteer training program will be determined to a large extent by the time available, the needs and interests of the volunteer, and the comfort level of the staff with the various content areas. The aim of their training was to have the volunteers become more skillful in:

- working in a flexible setting,
- listening,
- counseling,
- problem solving,
- gaining rapport with adolescents,
- carrying on meaningful conversations,
- involving youth in programming.

The majority of the volunteers can be expected to complete the training when there is a high interest level on the part of volunteers, built in staff expectations for the volunteers, and good instruction.

Volunteers found four two-hour sessions to be optimum for the length of training. The content was found to be quite helpful to those working with youth. The training programs included interpersonal communication skills, program planning, and understanding adolescent youth.

The following is one of the training outlines:

Volunteer Training - Content Outline

- I. Introduction
  - A. Background and Purposes
- II. Developing a Helping Relationship With Youth
  - A. Conditions
  - B. Introduction of Skills
- III. Interpersonal Communication Skills (helping skills)
  - A. Attending Behavior
  - B. Body Language
  - C. Listening For Content
  - D. Labeling Feelings
  - E. Listening For Feelings
  - F. Putting Content and Feelings Together
  - G. Defining the "Thematic Area of Concern"
  - H. The Holding Pattern
  - I. Steps in Problem Solving
- IV. Understanding Youth
  - A. Youth As A Social Category
  - B. Development
- V. Program Development
  - A. Program Model
  - B. Planning and Organizing Activities

An important part of the volunteer training program appears to be follow-up. In some instances, there were small group follow-up sessions and in others, there were individual follow-up sessions. But in all cases the volunteers felt that the follow-up sessions were useful in discussing situations and sharing ideas. The volunteers who did not receive follow-up opportunities felt that the follow-up sessions would be most helpful in overcoming disappointments and creating new interest in working with adolescents.

In general, the volunteers felt that the training helped them with listening, non-verbal interpretation of behavior, one-to-one communication, and gave them a better understanding of what adolescents are really saying and feeling. The training helped the volunteers gain confidence in themselves, which resulted in their being more relaxed when working with youth. In general, the volunteers agreed that they had not been listening to what youth had been saying.

PROJECT EVALUATION

Throughout the project various evaluation methods were used with staff and volunteers. In addition, the effectiveness of a program such as the one described here can be assessed by the youth participants.

More than 600 adolescent youth in the project counties participated in either a continuing group experience or short-term social recreation activities planned by a continuing group of youth. All of the continuing groups had adult advisors who had participated in the volunteer training described earlier. The youth found their group experiences to be quite positive and desired more of the same. The adult volunteers felt their training had been important in preparing them to work with the youth groups. Training in the helping skills and problem solving appears to have greatly enhanced the adult's "comfort level" in working with adolescent youth. In addition, those groups where the adult advisor was able to be patient and assist the youth in understanding and acquiring group process skills were more successful groups. Successful in that they functioned throughout the project period and produced satisfaction on the part of both youth and adult advisors.

Many of the youth who participated in the project groups can be described as "non-joiners." They were not members of youth organizations and their participation in school and non-school activities was quite limited. Also these youth had had little or no experience in interacting with adults in anything other than situations when adults have an authoritarian role such as home and school.

Therefore, while the youth were enthusiastic about being in a group where they could plan their own activities, they lacked the group process skills that would allow real consensus and planning to come about. In addition many of them were skeptical as to whether the adult advisors would in fact allow the youth to do their own planning.

Adult advisors of adolescent youth groups then must be prepared to build a trust relationship with the youth and at the same time assist them in developing group process skills so the groups can function.

SUMMARY

Adolescent youth constitute a challenge for those organizations and agencies who seek to provide informal educational opportunities for them. Staff and volunteers who cooperate in these programming efforts require training, follow-up training, support, and long-term commitment from all levels of the organization. The content of a development program for staff and volunteers coupled with the trainees' enthusiasm is critical for success. We believe the staff and volunteer training described here can serve as a model for other organizations.

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PREPARING THOSE WHO MANAGE VOLUNTEERS

A MODEL FOR EFFECTIVE OFFICE ORGANIZATION AND MANAGEMENT

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In this paper, we will present our model for effective and efficient office organization and management. We will show how the volunteer office can integrate the faculty, administration, and academic departments of the university into their volunteer programs. We will show how to provide the most service a volunteer can to the student body; we must serve the student's academic and social needs as well as provide them with referral services and direct services. We will also show the volunteer programs how to serve the community's social agencies needs and how to establish trust and credibility within the community. Here, the role of public relations and the volunteer office advertising plays a large role in establishing credibility with all three factions: administration, student body, and the community. For any volunteer office to be successful, creating the aura of trust is the first step in the journey of a thousand.

Our model for effective office organization and management has three facets to deal with. Our model therefore, will be set up showing how to integrate the volunteer office with each facet separately and then how to intergrate all three together in various combinations.

Facet I - Developmental Phase of Our Model
How the Office is Structured Internally: Relationships and Duties

A volunteer program with a well structured, well defined staff is the first step in management of a volunteer program.

The Administrative Director is the full time supervisor of all volunteers, office staff, volunteer programs, budget and finances and volunteer placements. The Director is also responsible for developing new programs and office public relations.

The Head Program Coordinator's job is to act as a liaison between the agency, the Program Coordinator and the program objectives. His duties involve follow-up of the volunteers' placement; procedures for fast volunteer placement; organizing and problem solving for the Program Coordinators; trouble shooting with individual volunteers; and maintaining agency-volunteer rapport.

The Office Manager's job consists of managing and organizing all office operations and staff assignments; publicity, large mailings, printed posters, press releases, student newspapers, commercial ads, and dittoed handouts.

The Office Staff responsibilities are many: Visiting and reporting on different agencies; publicity initiation (ads); producing the monthly newsletters; volunteer placements; answering all telephone and mail requests; conducting campus campaigns; speaking in various classes on campus about various volunteer opportunities.

The Program Coordinator's job is to check with the agency to make sure the volunteer is cooperating with the agency framework. He acts as a public relations rep to create good will and cooperation between school and agency and problem solver for any discord with the volunteer and the agency. The Program Coordinator works in conjunction with the Head Program Coordinator and the Program Evaluator. Every month, the Program Coordinator submits a report to the Head Program Coordinator telling of the progress of the volunteers, the program, and any problems that may have arisen (see addendum 1).

The Program Evaluator's job is to collate all the volunteer's impressions of the agency and the agency's impression of the volunteer. Working with the Program Coordinator, the Program Evaluator receives the agency's evaluation of each volunteer. This information is put into the volunteer's file. Each volunteer is given an evaluation form (see addendum 2) to rate the agency they worked at. This information is collated and put into the placement index as a rating from one to five.

Facet II - Fact Finding and Data Gathering
How the Office Organization Meets the Community Needs
Volunteer Job Development

Volunteer job development is a motivational necessity of volunteer programs. This concerns not only writing better volunteer job descriptions, but the process by which we can arrive at a meaningful volunteer job.

We assign staff members specific agencies that we would like to have checked out. There is much more to an agency than just a contact person and an address. By sending members of our staff out to various locations, we can have a better feel for volunteer placements. There are some agencies that look great on paper, but when we go to check it out, we realize that it falls short of our expectations. This little personalization in volunteer referrals makes our program quite unique. For example, we had a request from a Head Start Program in a very affluent area, which many students inquired about because of the location's convenience. From the information we had from the agency, it seemed like a good place for a volunteer to gain experience working with pre-school children. However, when our staff went to visit this agency, we found the building in a poor state of repair, the children unsupervised, and the agency staff skimpy and disorganized. If we had sent a volunteer to this program, they would have become very dissatisfied and stop going. It is senseless to lose a volunteer before we even have him.

Visiting agencies is also a good time to find new agencies and programs to initiate. Job development is essential to a successful program.

Attending conferences is an important method of developing a volunteer office and recruiting new ideas. Some of our most useful information we have attained was through national, regional, or local conferences.

Volunteer Follow-Up

Volunteer follow-up is an important facet. It is done to ensure that the agency is pleased with the volunteer service that it is receiving from our student volunteers. A volunteer's commitment to work at an agency is very important. If the volunteer breaks that commitment, it is the job of the volunteer office to find out why and to let the agency know. If many volunteers broke their commitment and didn't come to do their volunteer work, the agency would become displeased and not want any more volunteers.

The Placement Index

Being our soley unique and innovative idea, the placement index is the book which contains all our community requests. Listed under specific categories: emotionally disturbed, physically handicapped, hospitals, day care centers, high school tutoring, etc., we have vital information about each agency. This includes the capacity in which the volunteer would be used, how many volunteers are needed, as well as specific information and an overall rating.

The Regional College Organization

This is where the college volunteer programs in an area have a central clearinghouse to channel volunteer requests from the community. (In our area, it is LIRACHE, Long Island Regional Advisory Council for Higher Education.) If a request cannot be filled by one school, another may be able to provide the services needed. A regional center for area volunteer programs also serves as a source to exchange and test new ideas. (See addendum 3).

It is through these organizational devices that our office can better meet the needs of the community.

Facet III - Our Program in Implementation and Initiation
How the Office Organization Meets the Student and University Needs

Recruitment

The recruitment campaign is a large public relations drive which on the university level, is very important. Brain storming for the school year's volunteer recruitment campaign theme must be well thought out. This year's campaign theme was Career Experience Through Volunteerism. We submit articles, advertisements, and weekly reminders in every publication on campus telling people of the relevance volunteerism can play in their career goals. Eye-catching posters are placed throughout the campus and brochures are printed showing the relevance between particular majors, certain career opportunities, and different volunteer jobs. Staff members will speak in many classes about volunteer opportunities that the people in class might be interested in. We also try to get to freshman lecture halls in the beginning of the semester before their work load gets too heavy and give them a broad view of all the different types of volunteer work available to them. (New freshman are usually eager to get involved in all campus activities.) (See addendums 4 and 5).

Tutor Training Sessions

This year we invited Michael Jones, a researcher on tutor advice, to give us a two day lecture on tutoring tips. This not only benefits our volunteers and staff, but also benefits the university, for we make the session available to all faculty, administration, and interested campus groups.

Direct Service Programs

Among volunteer jobs in the community, a volunteer office should supply on-campus volunteer work. Listed below are some of the volunteer services that the H.E.L.P. Program provides:

Peer Tutoring. A tutoring service for all Hofstra students having trouble in their courses; all tutoring is done by other Hofstra students who have taken that course and have a good understanding of the material.

The Outreach Hotline and Walk-In Center. Located in our student center, is where they offer advice, help, counseling, a friendly smile, and coffee and doughnuts in the early hours of the morning during finals week.

The Ambassador Program. Makes possible the chance for a high school student to see what college is like by being with a Hofstra student for a day.

The Talent Bank. Is made up of Hofstra students who provide musical or artistic talents for workshops or entertainment.

Volunteer Orientation Program

Each agency we deal with has an orientation program to acquaint the volunteer with agency procedure. To supplement this, we hold a meeting every month in which we show a film, or have a guest lecturer talking about various problems the volunteer might come up against. Afterwards, the volunteers talk and get to know one another.

College Credit for Volunteer Work

This is a big plus for both students and the university. Our office, in conjunction with the Off-Campus Education Center has developed a program where it is possible to receive up to twelve semester hours for doing volunteer work. This is an important step because it gives the students a chance to complement their course work as well as adding an extra incentive to be a volunteer. (See addendum 6).

Workshops in Conjunction with Other University Departments and Clubs

When an organization is active, all the students and faculty immediately learns about what that organization does. Therefore, it is essential for a volunteer office to be sponsoring, or co-sponsoring with other clubs, various events and workshops. For example, this year our office co-sponsored a workshop on Rape With the Women's Center and the Sociology Department, co-sponsored a five day Alcohol Awareness Conference, as well as sponsoring a couple in a dnace marathon to raise money for cancer.

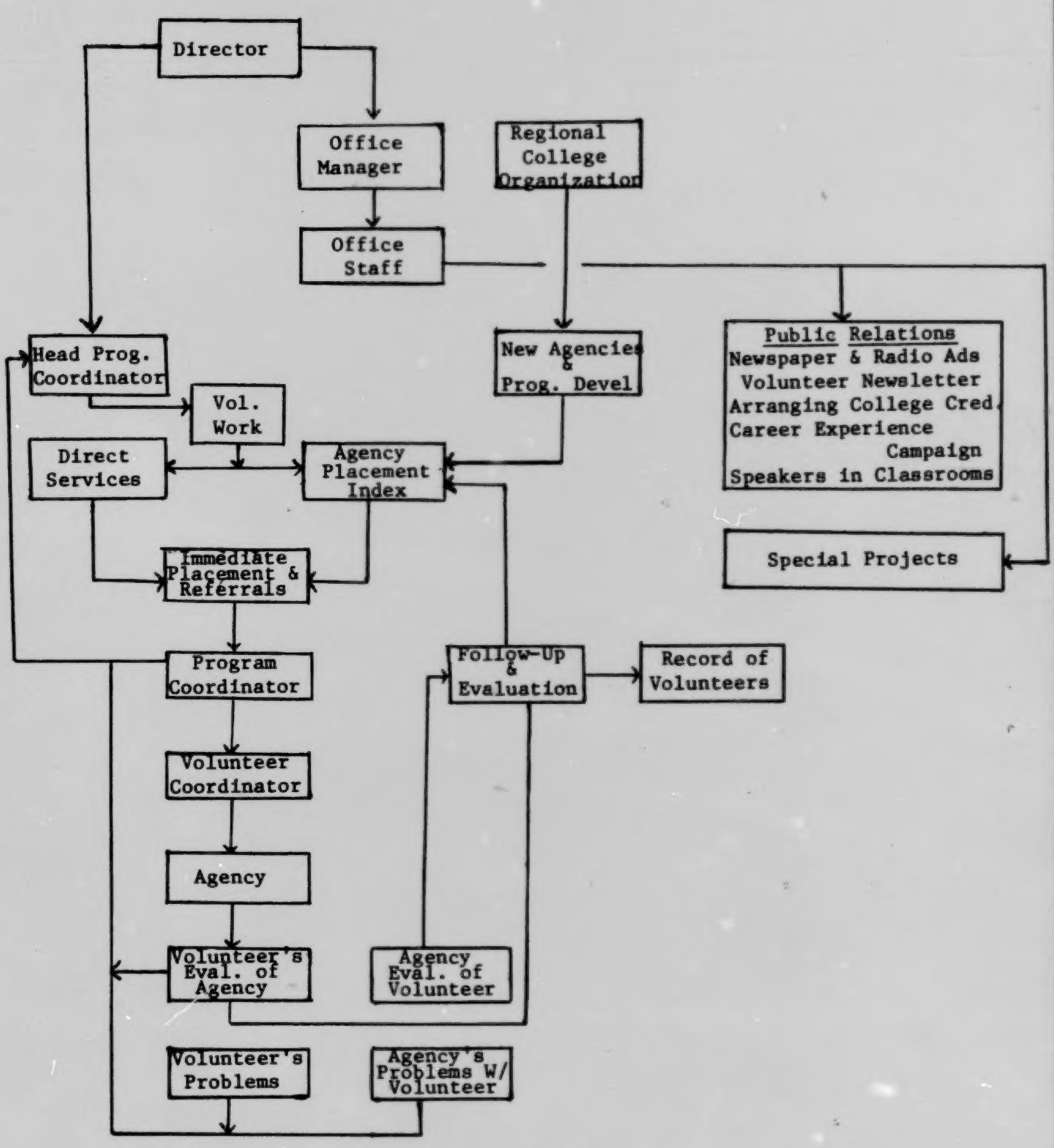
It is through these channels our volunteer program serves the students and the University's needs.

Summary

We can see how important it really is for those who manage volunteer offices to be well advised and organized. The efficiently managed college staff realizes the student needs, the community needs, and develops a pivotal relationship whereby each satisfies the others needs. An effective and respected volunteer office is not only as asset to the university, the students and its agencies, but also plays an intergral part in the community, for it ties in the world of academia to the professional world.

Of course, this paper is only a model for a college volunteer program. It is a program's responsibility to constantly strive for new ideas, better methods, experimentation and development.

Flow Chart for Office Structure and Effective Implementation


Director
Office Manager
Regional College Organization
Office Staff
Head Prog. Coordinator
New Agencies & Prog. Devel
Public Relations
Newspaper & Radio Ads
Volunteer Newsletter
Arranging College Cred.
Career Experience Campaign
Speakers in Classrooms
Vol. Work
Direct Services
Agency Placement Index
Immediate Placement & Referrals
Special Projects
Program Coordinator
Follow-Up & Evaluation
Record of Volunteers
Volunteer Coordinator
Agency
Volunteer's Eval. of Agency
Agency Eval. of Volunteer
Volunteer's Problems
Agency's Problems W/ Volunteer

Addendum #1

A Model Monthly Report

H.E.L.P Coordinator's
Monthly Report Form

Date: 10/26/76

Name: Elyse Davidson

Program: Peer Tutoring

General Program Progress Report- Fliers were hung on all of the floors in all of the towers. I spoke with a few professors asking for their help in obtaining volunteers. Letters are being sent out to the tutors letting them know that if they are not tutoring but want to be involved, they can come in and be placed in another program but their name will still remain in the peer tutors' file.

Specific Comments Pertaining To Volunteers- Professor Seldow from the Finance Department was particularly helpful. She gave me her phone number to give to one of my tutors so that she could help out. Howard Roth from the Accounting Society has also been helpful in obtaining tutors. H. Glaser, the chairman of the physics department, acknowledged my letter that I sent to all professors by sending me a tutor.

Other:(Comments, Problems, Et Cetera)

There is a shortage of tutors in chemistry, physics, and quantitative methods.

Statistics

31 people requested tutors
- 19 have tutors
- 2 dropped the course
- 10 are not placed

Addendum #2

HOFSTRA EDUCATIONAL LEAGUE FOR PROGRESS
VOLUNTEER AND COMMUNITY SERVICES

VOLUNTEER AGENCY EVALUATION FORM

AGE:____ SEX:_____ YEAR IN SCHOOL:______ MAJOR:_________

PART I

WHAT TYPE(S) OF AGENCY ARE YOU CURRENTLY WORKING IN? (please place a check next to as many as apply)

Big Brother/Sister___
Counseling center___
Physically Handicapped___
Tutoring: High school___
 Jr. High____
 Elementary___
Drug Treatment___
Alcohol Treatment___
Emotionally Handicapped____
Recreation___

Orphanage____
Community Service___
Day Care Center___
Corrections____
Youth Agency___
Geriatric___
Mentally Retarded___
Hospital: Medical____
 Psychiatric___
Other: (please specify)________

IF YOU HAVE HAD PREVIOUS VOLUNTEER EXPERIENCE WHILE IN COLLEGE, WHAT TYPE(S) OF AGENCY DID YOU WORK IN? (please place an X in the appropriate spaces above)

WHAT IS THE NAME OF THE AGENCY THAT YOU ARE CURRENTLY WORKING IN?

____

HOW LONG HAVE YOU BEEN VOLUNTEERING AT YOUR PRESENT AGENCY?

Less than 1 semester___
1-2 semesters___
2-3 semesters___

3-4 semesters___
over 4 semesters___

WHILE IN COLLEGE, HOW MANY YEARS HAVE YOU BEEN INVOLVED WITH VOLUNTEER WORK?

less than 1 year___
1-2 years___
2-3 years____
3-4 years___
over 4 years___

DID YOU DO VOLUNTEER WORK WHILE IN HIGH SCHOOL?
YES____ NO____

IF SO, FOR HOW LONG? ________________________

WHAT TYPE(S) OF AGENCY DID YOU WORK FOR? _______________
____
__________(please use the list of agency types on the front page of this form for reference)

PLEASE CHECK OFF YOUR REASONS FOR DOING VOLUNTEER WORK:

Personal status____
Personal satisfaction___
To gain work experience___
Testing out your career choice___
Course requirement___
Member of immediate family is handicapped___
Friend is handicapped___
Friend suggested it___
Want to explore possible career areas___
Looks good on resume____
Other: (please specify)______________

PART II

On the following pages, you will find questions dealing with specific areas of your volunteer placement. Below each question there will be two words to describe YOUR experience in your agency, as well as how you perceive the agency's

VOLUNTEER AGENCY EVALUATION FORM

Please place a check in the space that is closest to your feelings.

FOR EXAMPLE: HOW WOULD YOU DESCRIBE AN ICE CUBE?

Hot ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ _X_ Cold

Please answer all the questions, and answer them as honestly as you possibly can. These questions will be used to decide which programs will be given H.E.L.P. volunteers to work with in the future, as well as to rate each agency that volunteers are currently engaged in. Copies of the results of this survey will be placed on file in the H.E.L.P. office for your inspection.

WAS TRAINING PROVIDED AT THE AGENCY THAT YOU ARE WORKING IN?

A lot ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ None at all

IF TRAINING WAS PROVIDED, DID YOU FIND IT:

Too complex to understand ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ Too simple to be worth much

Time consuming ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ Too brief

Effective ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ Ineffective

Prepared you sufficiently for work in the agency ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ Not sufficie forwork

IF TRAINING WAS PROVIDED, WHO CONDUCTED IT? ______________

____

IF NO TRAINING WAS PROVIDED, WOULD YOU LIKE TO SEE SUCH A PROGRAM INITIATED?

Yes___ No______

IF H.E.L.P. INITIATED SUCH A PROGRAM ON CAMPUS, WOULD YOU ATTEND?

Definitely ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ Would not

VOLUNTEER AGENCY EVALUATION FORM

-4-

HOW DID THE AGENCY STAFF REACT TO YOU AS A VOLUNTEER?

Warm ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ Cold

Open ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ Aloof

Treated as member of the team ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ Treated as an outsider to the group

WERE YOU GIVEN ASSISTANCE BY THE AGENCY STAFF WHEN CONFRONTED WITH A PROBLEM?

A lot of assistance ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ No assistance

Eagerly given ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ Resistent

WAS THIS ASSISTANCE:

Very Helpful ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ Not helpful

Confusing ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ Clear

WHAT AGENCY RESOURCES ARE AVAILABLE TO YOU? (check as many as available)

Films and presentations___

Supervisor meetings___

Staff meetings____

Case presentations___

Special lectures___

Don't know_____

Other: (please specify)________________________________

IF THESE RESOURCES ARE AVAILABLE, DO YOU :

Attend most of them ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ Cannot attend at all.

WHY:____

____

____

____

____

____

____

VOLUNTEER AGENCY EVALUATION FORM

HOW MUCH SUPERVISION DOES THE AGENCY PROVIDE?

Too much	___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___	Too little

ARE THE HOURS EXPECTED FOR VOLUNTEERING AT YOUR AGENCY:

Convienent	___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___	Inconvienent
Too many	___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___	Too few

IS THE PHYSICAL PLANT OF THE AGENCY:

Conducive to volunteer work	___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___	Inhibits the impulse to do volunteer work
Is near to your home	___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___	Is far from your home
Well kept	___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___	Not kept up
Cheerful	___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___	Depressing

HAS YOUR H.E.L.P. COORDINATOR BEEN:

Helpful	___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___	Not helpful
Available for questions	___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___	Not available at all
Communicative of resources available	___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___	Non-communicat of resources available
Considerate	___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___	Inconsiderate
Reliable	___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___	Unreliable

ON THE WHOLE, THE CLIENTS THAT YOU HAVE BEEN WORKING WITH:

Appreciate your help	___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___	Do not appreciateyour help
Look forward to seeing you	___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___	Avoid seeing you
Warm	___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___	Cold
Have made progress	___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___	Have made no progress

VOLUNTEER AGENCY EVALUATION FORM

DO YOU HAVE ANY SUGGESTIONS FOR IMPROVING THE VOLUNTEER PROGRAM AT YOUR AGENCY? IF SO, PLEASE FEEL FREE TO EXPLAIN:

DO YOU HAVE ANY SUGGESTIONS FOR IMPROVING THE H.E.L.P. OFFICE AND ITS SERVICES? IF SO, PLEASE FEEL FREE TO EXPLAIN:

ANY ADDITIONAL COMMENTS?

Addendum #3 First page of regional organization newsletter

COLLEGE VOLUNTEER PROGRAM NEWS

LIRACHE

LONG ISLAND REGIONAL ADVISORY
COUNCIL ON HIGHER EDUCATION

Volume II, Number 1 Fall, 1976

Community Eager To Involve Students

Getting the most out of college presents a challenge to every student. In recognition of the vast potential resource students are, community agencies have created literally thousands of positions throughout Long Island.

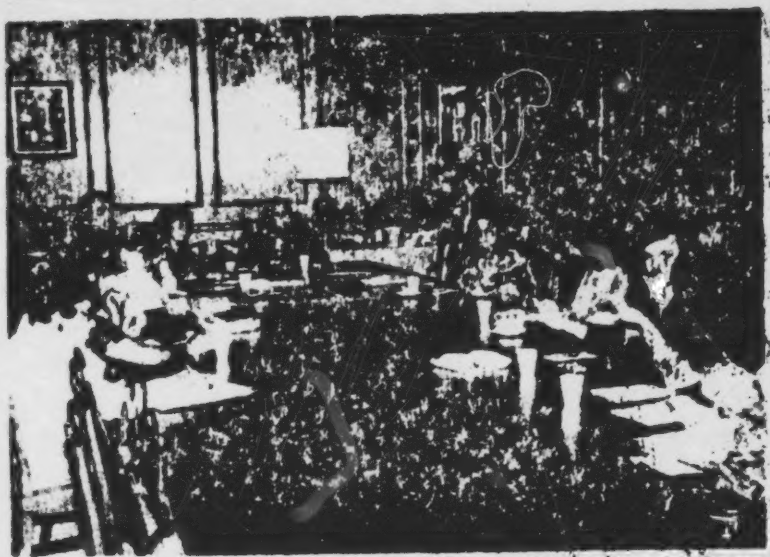
Youth programs, psychiatric and general care hospitals, schools (all grades), geriatric facilities, consumer protection agencies, museums, hotlines and day care centers are examples of agencies offering a wide range of positions for college students.

Last year more than 940 students made community services an important part of their college education. This program was sponsored by Adelphi University, C.W. Post College, Hofstra University, Molloy College, Nassau Community College, New York Institute of Technology, and SUNY College at Old Westbury.

A Volunteer & Community Service office operates on each campus matching student needs and interests with appropriate placements in the community. This gives the students the opportunity not only to provide much needed services, but also to test for themselves possible career alternatives. This enables students to get a "feel" for what a profession is all about BEFORE investing years of study prior to entering the field.

Trained and supervised by agency professionals, student volunteers (graduate and undergraduate) serve as counselors, teacher aides and tutors, research assistants, occupational and physical therapy aides, Big Brothers and Sisters, interpreters for Spanish speaking residents, youth workers, and so on.

As Ms. Nancy Belowich, present Director of the H.E.L.P. Program at Hofstra said, "Volunteering provides people with the chance to learn helping skills. We must begin to incorporate the university into the community at large rather than isolate ourselves for four years and then try to join the community."



Representatives from seven Nassau County colleges discuss plans for the upcoming year.

Cooperative Effort Expands to Suffolk; Considered National Model

Initiation of a cooperative College Volunteer and Community Service Program in Suffolk County, similar to the seven college effort in Nassau County, has been made possible by a $47,000 grant from a local private foundation.

At least five Suffolk County colleges will be launching new programs or expanding those already underway: Friends World College, Southampton College, S.U.A.C. Farmingdale, S.U.N.Y. Stony Brook, and St. Joseph's College.

The program, considered a model for the nation, utilizes a centralized clearinghouse which assists in increasing efficiency of operation while reducing duplication of effort.

Program development is facilitated via monthly meetings of representatives from each campus program at which time joint projects and publications are developed and possible solutions to common problems are discussed.

Although presently there are 107 consortia composed of more than 1,100 colleges and universities in the United States, the Long Island Regional Advisory Council on Higher Education (LIRACHE) is among the first to attempt such a cooperative arrangement for the benefit of the university community and the community at large.

Ms. Jeanne Carney, Director of the National Student Volunteer Program (NSVP), which is one part of ACTION, the federal volunteer agency, believes that "the development of LIRACHE's College Volunteer and Community Service Program is indicative of a growing commitment towards service-learning opportunities for students. The consortium approach is most helpful in heightening academic awareness of the direct relation between active community involvement and one's education."

Ms. Carney goes on to say that, "in an area with a great number of colleges or high schools, one is better able to handle overlap and coordinate activities. You do not have 1,000

(Continued on back page)

Addendum #4

Do You Have A Job Lined Up After Graduation, or Are You Going To Be

AN EDUCATED BUM?

Let CAREER EXPERIENCE through volunteering work for you!

--*Test your career possibilities*
--*Get solid experience in your field*
--*Gain work experience for future positions*
--*Meet the people in your field*
--*Apply classroom knowledge to practical learning situations*

Pre-Law
Psych-Sociology-Eduation-
Pre-Med

We specialize in volunteer placements for you:

Special Education
Day Care Centers
Group Homes
Hempstead Law Office
Peer-Tutor
Counseling Therapy
Psychiatric Hospitals
Schools-all levels
Talent Bank
Outreach Hotline and Walk-in
Big Brother-Sister
General Hospitals
Tutoring Elem.and High SCH.
One:To:One
Out-patient Clinics

The H.E.L.P. Office-Rm. 216 Stu. Center

x-3230 9am.-5pm. Mon-Fri

Addendum #5

OUTLINE FOR SPEAKING IN CLASSES

Basic Information:

1. The H.E.L.P. Volunteer Program, the first and largest of its kind on the island, was founded 1968 by a group of students who wanted to do something in the community after the death of Martin Luther King Jr.
2. H.E.L.P. provides two kinds of services
    - (a) Direct Services, usually on campus - Peer tutoring, Outreach, Disabled Students Organization
    - (b) Referrals, usually off campus - agencies in the communit
3. Reasons for volunteering have changed. It used to be pure altriusm. Now it's mostly need for experience.
4. No transportation? We have an automatic van which can be lent to any full-time Hofstra student with a driver's license.

II Why volunteer?

1. Gives you a chance to put theoretical work to test in an applied setting.
2. Provides you with practical work experience for future job resumes or grad schools.
3. Gives you an opportunity to test out various careers.
4. Lets you decide before graduation what fields you are or are not interested in.
5. Keeps you in touch with the outside world.
6. Viable and constructive social outlet - chance to meet other active, involved people.
7. Sometimes it could lead to a job.
8. Academic Credit with Off Campus Education office for any undergrad who wants an internship.
9. Gives you a chance to keep in touch with people of all different ages and backgrounds.
10. Gives you a chance to help others- personal satifaction
11. It's a learning experience for you and for others.

III What to stress:

1. COMMITMENT - think of your volunteer experience as a regular job- People are relying and depending on you. BE RESPONSIBLE. Don't overcommit yourself.
2. Civil Service counts volunteer work as regular job experience
3. Letters of recommendations.

Addendum #6

Center for Off-Campus Education
206 Weed Hall
516 560-3462

H.E.L.P.
Volunteer & Community Services
216 Student Center
516 560-3230

GUIDELINES FOR CONVERTING HELP INTERNSHIPS INTO OFF-CAMPUS EDUCATION PROJECTS

1. Determine the specific nature of, and your role in, your present internship. What is it you do there? What is the goal or aim of your work?

2. What academic area or discipline best incorporates your internship? Is this different from the academic area or areas which best define the goals and operations of the firm or organization of which your internship is a part?

3. Are you clearly exposed to work situations involving a knowledge or study in the above discipline or disciplines? If not, is it possible to alter your present internship to encompass or touch upon this academic discipline or areas?

4. Now you must focus in. Define your internship through a specific aspect or subdivision of its discipline. Your internship may be interdisciplinary -- falling in two different academic areas. If so, narrow it down to subdivisions in both areas.

5. Decide if you want to approach your internship from one or more disciplines, if it is clearly interdisciplinary. You may want to focus in on only one aspect rather than two or more.

6. Make sure that you have some background in the field of your approach.

7. Discuss the above findings with the HELP office. Are your findings consistant with the Director's understanding of your internship and the OCE program? If not, you may have to re-define the nature and function of your internship. If you have defined for yourself an academic interest but your present internship does not touch upon this area, you may want to find another internship and/or site capable of fulfilling it.

8. You must now speak with your academic advisor, explaining your tentative OCE project. If he or she believes your idea is feasible, academically viable, and consistent with your overall undergraduate program, he or she should agree to your pursuing OCE credit. Please note that you cannot formally propose an OCE project without your advisor's approval and signature.

9. Visit the OCE office. OCE staff will explain the procedure of the program and will provide you with the necessary documents. He or she will also explain the details and emphasis of the OCE committee, including how to write your proposal to present your ideas in a clear, concise manner. Remember, the OCE committee examines proposals for academic viability so this component of your proposal must be covered thoroughly.

Please note that OCE projects are a combination of academic learning and practical experience. The OCE committee will not approve any proposal which does not effectively integrate the two -- the acquisition of practical skills does not constitute academic learning.

10. You must now go and find a full time Hofstra faculty member to become your Faculty Correspondent, the person who will work with you on the academic component of your project. He or she must be conversant in the academic area of your project.

11. Find someone at the site of your internship willing to act as your On-Site Supervisor: He or she must be willing to write monthly reports of your progress and a final evaluation to your faculty correspondent, as well as provide on-going supervision and weekly conferences. For providing this service, the OCE office reimburses the O-SS from your tuition. The O-SS should understand from the onset that you are there to learn and work; you should not be utilized as a gopher or secretary assigned to menial tasks.

    Please note that all OCE students must keep a daily log of their experiences, submit monthly reports of their progress to their faculty correspondent, and must submit at the conclusion of their project a learning summary. The faculty correspondent may require additional products as mentioned.

12. Together you and your faculty correspondent should formalize your ideas into a typewritten proposal. Once written, he or she should read it carefully, making sure your ideas are conveyed clearly, the language is correct, and both the practical and academic components of the proposal are specified. Most important is defining precisely products for evaluation. Books and articles to be used should be listed. The topic or topics of the paper or papers should be stated. Please note that the topic or topics must be consistent with the academic aspect of your internship; it should not be tangental but should be an integration of your readings and experiences. The topic or topics of your products should reflect a specific education objective, or objectives, -- the subject(s) of your investigation, or what you hope to learn -- in this OCE project.

13. Before submitting your proposal for review by the OCE committee procure the signatures of your advisor and faculty correspondent. Then, submit your proposal and On-Site Supervisor's statement to the OCE office.

14. The OCE committee will review your proposal, accepting it as a contract, disapprove it, or make suggestions or amendments. If the latter, these suggestions and/or amendments will be communicated to you.

15. If the committee made recommendations and suggested changes, you must then write a Contract, or the document which incorporates these suggestions of the committee with the ideas of your proposal. This document, which must also be signed by your advisor and faculty correspondent, is then re-submitted to the committee for final approval.

VOLUNTEER STAFF DEVELOPMENT: A DEMONSTRATION STUDY OF THE DEVELOPMENT, ADOPTION AND DIFFUSION OF AN INNOVATION

by

Violet Marie Malone
Leadership and Staff Development, 4-H
University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign

and

C. Wayne Hoelscher
Region V, Cooperative Extension Service
University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign

Introduction

The 4-H program in Illinois is strongly based on the use of a voluntary staff supported by a paid staff. Adults and teens serve in the volunteer leadership role at the county level. Because the turnover of leaders each year is about 50% to 60% and the rate of volunteering has stabilized or in some places declined, there is a need to utilize these individuals in a variety of roles as well as a need to identify and recruit new volunteers.

Given the present staffing plan for paid staff and the availability of other resources, there is a need to more clearly define the roles and functions of volunteers and paid staff who are involved in the expansion and maintenance of the youth program and to develop procedures for implementing the process at the local level.

Background

Based on summaries of County Program Reviews and an intensive statewide 4-H Program Review certain premises relative to 4-H and volunteerism emerged. They were:

1) Any youth involved in an Extension Education Program is a 4-H participant.

2) Volunteer adults and youth are essential to enhance the learning of each 4-H participant.

3) Large numbers of adults and youth are available and capable of serving as volunteer leaders of youth in various geographical areas.

4) Youth and adults will participate in Extension education programs to the extent that they find the programs to be important and personally satisfying to them.

5) Various community-based organizations are anxious to and will assist with 4-H program development if asked.

6) The Extension staff does help people develop learning systems and

linkage systems that will make it possible for groups to learn from one another.

7) Volunteers and paid staff can work effectively in 4-H programs if roles are clearly defined.

8) One Extension staff person can administer to unlimited numbers of 4-H participants if the framework is developed which capitalizes on available resources within the assigned administrative unit and the people are involved in delineating the structure and the delivery system appropriate for individual participant learning.

9) One Extension staff task is that of preparing volunteers for their teaching/learning roles.

10) Leadership development is an important learning goal for all 4-H participants (adults and youth).

In the publication "Education for Change," it was suggested that for 4-H program growth to take place there must be a redefining and specializing of leadership roles for volunteer leaders. "As the 4-H program has grown in both size and complexity, so has the role of the volunteer leader. Volunteer leaders are vital to the success of all aspects of the 4-H program, but a single person does not have to provide all the leadership functions."

Purpose

The purpose of this demonstration project was to provide professional staff with an opportunity to broaden their knowledge base and acquire additional skills needed to adopt and diffuse a stratified leadership concept in which roles for volunteers are redefined and specialized. Particular emphasis was placed on work of local staff with:

1) Youth Councils - County Policy/Program Decision Group

2) Club Leaders - Organization Leaders Who Have Face-Face Contact with Youth

3) County Management Leaders - Maintenance and Service Staff in a Program Support Role

4) Teen Leaders - Youth, 13-19 Years of Age, Who Have a Teaching Role with Other Youth

Goals to be achieved as an end result of the demonstration project were:

In two years, to:

---increase the number of professional staff who utilize sound management principles to maintain and expand volunteer staff

---increase by 20% the number of counties using volunteers in stratified roles

---increase by 30% the number of volunteers participating in the 4-H program

Procedure

The procedures used to bring change in the present situation to a more desirable one were based on the development of a) a rationale which included an analysis of the current literature; objectives of the Illinois Cooperative Extension Service and the Program of Work statement at the county level; and the experiences of the professional staff at county, state and national levels and b) a plan of action which included the utilization of a statewide developmental committee of advisers, paraprofessionals, teen and adult leaders, and administrators to investigate, summarize and make recommendations for action on selected issues related to the program purpose. Utilizing the committee's findings, state staff would develop and implement concurrently, a program of learning experiences for professional staff to test out the data.

With a youth program existing in all 102 counties in Illinois, it was determined that the most appropriate way to introduce the concept of stratified leadership to the advisers was through the Inservice Education Program. The state Inservice Education Committee includes administrators, specialists, area staff as well as advisers from each program area.

In December, 1974, a request was made to the committee to:

1) Hold a statewide conference on volunteerism in March, 1976

2) Hold regional workshops on "Developing and Managing a Volunteer Staff Program," 1976

3) Have a course during Annual Conference in October, 1976

The request was approved by the Committee and the Administrative Council for implementation with supporting funds form the Smith-Lever budget and the State 4-H office budget.

Invitations to participate in the March workshop were sent to the County Staff Leaders in all 102 counties with a limit of 50 applicants being accepted on a first come-first serve basis. Sixty-five applied and all were permitted to attend. Prior to each workshop or conference, participants were asked to review their current long-range program of work as well as their short-range plan of work to determine how the activity could benefit them.

They were also asked to discuss their plans with the other members of the County Staff and with the members of the Local 4-H Council. This was done to insure acceptance and support for the implementation of the innovation.

As support for the Inservice Education was being acquired, the State 4-H Advisory Committee, which includes administrators, advisers, volunteers, and members, encouraged the State Staff to move on with the Leadership Development thrust. The establishment of a Volunteer Leadership Development Committee was approved and funded from the State 4-H budget and contributors from the Illinois 4-H Foundation.

Working with the Administrative Directors in each of the 10 regions, the State 4-H Staff person submitted a list of names to the Assistant Director, 4-H who sent a formal letter of invitation to the individuals asking them to serve on this committee. All invited persons accepted the invitation. The committee was to function in the following ways:

LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT COMMITTEE
1976-1977

COMMITTEE

The Leadership Development Committee is an officially appointed Cooperative Extension Servide group of paid staff (professional and paraprofessional) and volunteer staff (4-H leaders and council members). This committee is a temporary one lasting no longer than 18 months; it was developed in response to the 4-H Program Review in which leadership development was identified as a statewide program thrust.

TASKS

The 16 members of this committee are charged with the following tasks:

1) Develop written recommendations for action which relate to the concept of leadership development.
2) Review materials available to use in the identification, recruitment, selection, training, supervision and recognition of volunteers and the 4-H paraprofessional.
3) Assess the 4-H leadership project materials and activities as well as events for youth (especially teens) and adults.
4) Work with State Staff and 4-H Advisory Committee to prepare a series of statements to use in writing a long range plan for leadership development for paid and volunteer staff.

TIME FRAME

This is a one time task force operating in the following ways:

1) Late May-early June 1976--one 2-Day meeting on campus. Meet with State 4-H Staff to identify some additional needs; work in groups to outline tasks to be worked on during summer and fall.
2) Mid-September--one 2-day meeting on campus to pool resources, discuss recommendations for actions, write tentative report.
3) January-February 1977—one 1-day meeting with State 4-H Staff and 4-H Advisory Committee to receive and react to written recommendations.
4) Several telenet sessions will be scheduled after the first meeting for clarification and feedback.

EXPENSES

Expenses incurred by members in the work of the Leadership Committee will be reimbursed from funds of the State 4-H office. Vouchers for paid staff will be prepared in local office. Vouchers for volunteers will be distributed at each meeting. Expenses will include lodging, meals, mileage.

STAFF RESPONSIBILITIES

Dr. Violet M. Malene has been asked to provide leadership to this Committee. She will be responsible for convening and conducting meetings of the Committee. A recorder for each meeting will be appointed; temporary chairpersons will be utilized to facilitate the work of the group. State 4-H Staff will be invited to participate in all meetings of the Committee on campus.

LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT COMMITTEE
1976-1977

Six Advisers: Kay England - Whiteside
Marguerite Gaydoes - Clinton
Gary Heusel - Cook II (Chicago)
Bob Long, Jr. - Southern Camp
Teresa McAllister - McDonough
Jim Schmidt - Pulaski-Alexander

Three Paraprofessionals: Nancy Peffley - LaSalle
Naomi Russell - Cook, South
Oshia Washington - Sangamon

Six Volunteers: 3 Adults: Ted Volkert - Lake
Natalie Riecks - Champaign
Cecil Thilker - Effingham

3 Teens: Carlton Gabel - Cooperative Extension Club
Fran Livingston - Kane
Tony Williams - Cook II (Chicago)

All 10 Regions are represented.

Wayne Hoelscher, Administrative Director, Region 5, has been asked to serve as an administrative liaison person. Dr. Melton Boyce, Extension Service Staff, will act as a consultant to the group.

The committee completed the task when they summarized their results and made recommendations for action to the State 4-H Staff in March, 1977. Their recommendations were sent to the State 4-H Adivsory Committee pending action at their next meeting in September. State Staff has agreed to spend part of their Spring Retreat planning for implementation of the recommendations.

Copies of all letters and materials were sent to the State 4-H Staff and Regional Directors. State Staff members participated in the design and implementation of all conferences and workshops. They were also invited to sit in on the discussions of the State Leadership Committee. The Assistant Director, 4-H either attended or was represented at all of the activities related to the leadership thrust.

The participants in the Annual Conference course used materials developed by the Leadership Development Committee. Further, the course was designed so Advisers would have input into the committee's work. The concepts and ideas were introduced in this manner to help the committee determine a level of acceptance.

The Inservice Education committee has been requested to approve for the spring of 1978 workshops on: 1) professional staff working with volunteers; 2) professional staff working with para-professionals.

The request also asks for pre and post sessions over the statewide teleNet System.

Finally, an important link in the entire process included the involvement of Extension Service staff as consultants in the process for the point of examining current literature and practice to the design of the workshops. The Extension Service staff presented concepts of leadership at the Conferenc and workshops and visited via conference call with the developmental committe

Principal Findings

1) County staff do accept the concept of stratified leadership if an "easy way to move into the system can be found." Three months after the March workshop 16 of the 65 participants said they were making strong efforts to move in this direction by writing it into their plan of work and working with their local council to initiate the county assessment of leadership. Appendix A

2) County staff have little or no management tools to help them make the change. Appendix A

3) Few, if any, volunteers other than leaders are listed as being involved in 4-H. Appendix A

4) State, Administrative Staff and Lay Leaders did support the effort to achieve the goals established by the committee when they were involved in the decision making process.

5) The paraprofessional is an undefined link in the leadership and change process. More statewide support for this group is needed in terms of materials to support advisers in the orientation, utilizatio and supervision of this staff group. Appendix C

6) No one management tool or leadership aid can be developed for use (as it is presented) in all county situations. A group of tools and aids can be developed and geared to a cluster of counties based on their staffing patterns and size.

7) Confusion exists between leadership as a process/activity or event and leadership as subject matter (project/Program). Both the process and subject matter can be made available in series of supportive events coordinated on County, Regional and State levels. Appendix C

8) Identification of the primary audience of staff is important. The primary audience of advisers are leaders; the primary audience of leaders are members.

9) The increase in volunteers cannot be noted until the state enrollmen summary is tallied in June, 1977.

10) Support by Administration for research in leadership has increased.

Summary

In this study the aspect of the problem which included staff acceptance of the innovation (stratified leader was realized on a much broader level than was the adoption of the practice and the diffusion of it into the overall program). However, some factors in the process are important if adoption and diffusion is to occur.

1) There is considerable merit in having a developmental committee that is broad based and has time to study issues.

2) The committee must have status, be supported financially, and have a system for reporting to decision makers at each step of the process.

3) The selection of committee members must guarantee balance as to experience, position, responsibilities, and willingness to function.

4) The committee must be allowed to develop its own list of tasks within given parameters of objectives and time.

5) The chairman needs to assume a facilitator role in the sub-committee structure.

6) Inservice education programs should be conducted in a sequence that allows staff opportunity to be aware that the desired change is possible--conducting session that begin at the awareness level and proceed to those at the knowledge and skill levels if adoption is to take place.

7) Inservice education programs should include the opportunity for staff to develop knowledge and skills while they are being supported by local Councils and others as well as regional and state staff.

8) Evaluation of the adoption of the concepts presented cannot be meaningful until a period of time passes.

9) Inservice education committees must build in opportunities for unplanned or emergency program to meet needs of learners.

10) Inservice education program on leadership can better serve the learners if they are broad based in subject matter and process. Therefore, the utilization of research and resource persons in anthropology, urban planning, as well as education, sociology and psychology is important.

In the two year period, the project leaders can begin to see an emerging group of "early adapters along with the innovators." To keep this momentum building, support materials and resources must become available to this group by September, 1977 with visits by program leaders to these individuals during October-December period. Recognition of these individuals should be planned into the on going job satisfaction program.

APPENDICES

A. Followup Evaluation - March 1976 Conference

B. Evaluation - September, 1976 Workshop

C. Recommendation of Leadership Development Committee.

Suggested Resources

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B. EFFECT OF STUDENT VOLUNTEER EXPERIENCE

SOME PROBLEMS ASSOCIATED WITH SERVICE/LEARNING OR EXPERIENTIAL EDUCATION

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INTRODUCTION

It is likely that participants in a conference dealing with the roles of colleges and universities in volunteerism are themselves committed to and enthusiastic about those roles. We come together expecting to find audiences which share our values and aspirations. To the extent that we do form a community, we should not only take pride in each other's accomplishments, but reveal and analyze our individual problems. I assume that all of us could easily point to superficial and profound problems in our work. I predict that from such sharing we will find, as C. Wright Mills (1959) said, that a "private trouble" is really a "public issue," in other words, the individual case points to a generic problem. If these troubles are indeed shared and made public, then this forum can create the opportunity for useful action in the form of considering solutions and strategizing plans of action. This paper, therefore, outlines and analyzes several problems within my own program which are generic rather than specific in the hopes of creating a better understanding of experiential education and service/learning.

The program with which I have been most intimately connected for half of its ten-year existence is Project Outreach, one of the introductory courses in psychology at the University of Michigan. Students can earn two ungraded credits per semester for approximately six hours of involvement per week working in small groups in one of 40 different community settings in the areas of education, child care, community organizing, mental health, geriatrics, criminal justice, mental retardation, etc. The small groups are supervised and led by students who have previously participated as Outreach students in that setting. Groups are clustered within projects which are administered by student project coordinators. All of the 40 projects are collectively supervised and administered by paid student staff. I serve as the psychology faculty head of the program, but internal program decisions are made on a collective basis in which I participate. Approximately 1,000 students per semester or 2,500 students per year enroll in this program.

SOME INITIAL PROBLEMS

A typical day or a typical semester generates enormous service to the agencies in which the students are placed. This service is easily documented in terms of hours of work, amount of client contracts, kinds of tasks, etc. Less easily evaluated and measured is the quality and quantity of learning acquired by participants, leaders and coordinators. Experiential indices could be devised to demonstrate that students gain competence in providing service, understanding settings, and handling problems. Countless anecdotes could be collected to illustrate the nature of personal growth that accrues to participants in these projects. These accomplishments on the level of action, self-actualization and cognition are distinctive products of experiential education.

That same typical day and typical semester also generate what sometimes seems like an unending stream of problems. Some of these problems are inherent in any large organization - efficiency, communication, resource allocation, decision making, etc. Others, however, go to the heart of experiential education and provide points for crucial decisions. In the following pages I address three of these issues: the problem of definition, the function of the teacher, and the conflict between social service and social change. I selected these three topics - in brief, the course, the agency, the teacher - to allow a broad range of observations on service/learning, and because other topics have already received much attention in the literature[1] or have been resolved within our own program.

One such example is the issue of student motivation for participation. Anyone connected with service/learning programs immediately recognizes that students are variously motivated by a desire to learn, to get involved in an unusual setting, to earn "easy" credits, to test a career, etc. Although I might consider certain motivations "nobler" than others, I have never noticed any consistently appreciable difference in student performance which I could attribute to their pre-enrollment motivation. Many motivations seem to lead to Rome, or in this case, Project Outreach. The specific motivation to join is not important, but the nature of the commitment after joining us is. I consider "motivation" a false problem. At most it is an issue for those who are concerned with increasing their recruitment.

If motivation is a false problem, anyone who is connected with service/learning programs knows that the problem of creative project ideas is nonexistent. Wherever there is an opportunity for new experience, there is a great likelihood that creative ideas will emerge, and they do. In addition, there are some problems which seem to be a reflection of the historical moment, and therefore larger than one can hope to influence. For instance, I am troubled by the fact that the black student involvement in our program barely reflects the percentage of black students on campus, whereas the percentage of blacks among the clients we serve is much greater. Although we are making some inroads in increasing minority participation, we are still predominantly a white organization serving agencies, many of which have black residents, inmates, patients, or neighborhood kids.

There are also problems about which little or nothing can be done, such as the termination of relationships at the end of semesters or the general detrimental effect of a high rate of personnel turnover on an organization. Students graduate just when they have achieved the skill to make the greatest contribution to their setting or to the other students they supervise. The perpetual turnover generated by the division of time into semesters and the limitation of a student's residence on campus to a few years leads to difficulty in creating continuity. Surprisingly, Project Outreach and the agencies with which it collaborates have been able in most cases to establish solid, continuous relations even with the high turnover rate. What is lost in terms of having to retrain new groups every several months is perhaps gained in the form of fresh energy. Some settings can tolerate disrupted relations and the high turnover rate easier than others.

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[1] See issues of Synergist.

For a program head, turnover of personnel implies a great deal of repitition in administration which can be tedious and unchallenging. The problem of turnover can be alleviated by limiting the program's size, but we have found it difficult to restrain our growth. Demand for service, both on the part of student interest in participation and agency desire for student involvement, grows at a faster rate than do resources. The imposition of limits on growth is perceived by many as unfair and ungenerous, rather than rational and necessary. In our American culture shaped by limitless geographic horizons and boundless wealth, it will take a major reorientation to replace "bigger is better" with "small is beautiful." In our program a perennial dilemma is achieving an appropriate balance between quantity and quality.

After this cursory glance at some problematic features, we can examine more critically three components of service/learning programs - the issue of definition, the function of the teacher, and the relation to social change.

PROGRAM DEFINITION

The problem of definition refers to the ambiguous identity of the courses or programs to which we are attached. Self-definitions emerge in several ways. They are established at the initiation of a program or course, frequently in elaborate proposals presented to a sanctioning body. Since this definition is posited before the launching of the course, it is likely that additional or altered dimensions will emerge when the program is in progress. In this sense, a preliminary definition is a prediction which is not always fulfilled. Change is an expectable, unpreventable process, because once students begin to participate, their actions and experiences will entitle them to contribute both deliberately and inadvertently to the definition of the course or program.

Definitions of organizations change when the program is tested and when new members participate. With each generation of membership the definition receives input, is stretched. A third factor is external feedback, from agencies, from other university components, etc. And since these sources of feedback are themselves undergoing change, the feedback is not constant either. Finally, it is misleading to think of these sources of definitional input as homogeneous and consistent. Within any group factions are likely to develop around issues as they emerge. If you scratch the surface of these factions, you will find that each has a different perception of what the course or program is. They have these different perceptions because of their personal needs or their vested interests.

Definitions are also very much influenced by the terminology used in relation to a program, especially the name of the program itself. The label we apply should be both descriptive of its contents and attractive to those to whom we are trying to sell our wares. In other words titles are both reflective and political. In my educational setting, the university defines its mission in terms of creating and transmitting new knowledge. Rewards are accorded to individuals primarily on the basis of their adherence to those values. Within that normative environment, therefore, excellence in teaching is secondary, and service to the university or the community is nice but not necessary.

It makes greater sense to define my program as experiential education rather than service/learning or voluntarism. Although we might take pride in providing service to the neighboring community through our work in agencies, our legitimacy in the university derives from our ability to educate students. With the choice of the label "experiential education" we make ourselves potentially comprehensible to other members of the university community. We then have the responsibility, however, to fulfill our own self-definition, to be truly educational in an experiential way. Establishing and maintaining this credibility with the university powers can lead to a schizophrenic existence if one is unable to be consistent when presenting oneself (Goffman, 1959) to the community or students.

These pressures to be a different thing to different constituents is aggravated when one has little power and is dependent on the various audiences for money, legitimacy, or placements. Perhaps the multiple pressures to create various disparate selves for various disparate audiences is one of the causes for the burn-out phonemoneon among personnel of alternative settings. In other situations rather than a key figure becoming lodged in a social configuration of multiple conflicting demands and therefore experiencing internal conflict, the conflict can be expressed on the group level. Factions develop, each of which represents a different "face" of the program, since it faces different publics and experiences different pressures. In my own program this factionalism is aggravated by the fact that as director I perform most of the liaison work with the university so as to leave other program personnel free to work with community setting members and with fellow students. The number of times they negotiate with university faculty and administrators diminishes, and they begin to see our program more in terms of its place within the community. Because of these experiences I begin to define our program increasingly as experiential education, while other program personnel see it increasingly as a human service organization. We can function smoothly despite these disparate definitions until a collective decision has to be made and it, becomes obvious that our ability to achieve concensus on issues as related to our ability to achieve concensus regarding our identity. From the wide variety of descriptive labels -

service/learning, experiential education, internship, fieldwork, practicum, field study, independent study, etc. - a program should select one and use it continuously and consistently, educating the university and community about its meaning and purpose.

THE TEACHER IN EXPERIENTIAL EDUCATION

A second cluster of problems hinges on the function of the teacher within experiential education. In 1938 John Dewey stressed that experiential education focuses on the learner him/herself in contrast to the traditional triangle: teacher, subject matter, and student. One of the ways in which experiential education is defined today is precisely in these exclusive terms, i.e. education that takes place outside the teacher's traditional domain - the classroom - and without the teacher's traditional tools - the lecture and the textbook. In experiential education we find a substitute for the classroom in different settings which we refer to variously as "the real world," "the community" placement, field site, etc. and we replace lectures and texts by participation, planning, and the assumption of responsibility for action.

Because experiential education is grounded in the student's interaction in a natural environment not specifically designed for educational purposes, there is no limitation on where experiential education can occur. This non-exclusive quality creates anxiety in traditional educators whose concept of education is linked to the specific settings of the classroom, laboratory, library or studio. This alternative is a challenge to traditional education. One behavioral feature of these traditional educational settings is that they encourage passivity and competition among students, and domination among teachers. Outside the classroom the student's behavior is active and more likely to be cooperative and the role of the teacher is poorly defined if not superfluous.

The teacher's role in experiential education is altered to the same degree that the student's educational process is changed. The teacher must enter into close, personal contact with the student, must attempt to understand the student's experience and then help her/him explicate it. The teacher should help create bridges between the student's experiences and the academic discipline. But no one can ever know another person's experience (Laing, 1967) and the use of one's own experience as a source of understanding (so-called subjective knowledge) is generally disparaged as unscientific (Reinharz, 1977). Creating an educational program based on experience, therefore, is problematic. If the teacher does attempt to work with the student on the level of experience, then s/he is entering the realm of affective education (that form of education which deals with the emotional life), or moral education (concern with values). The place of these concerns is questioned in today's institutions of higher learning.

Ironically, it is possible for a teacher interested in experiential education to opt either for such close, interpersonal involvement with a student or its opposite - almost no contact at all. In the latter case, the teacher merely arranges for the student to participate in settings in which educational demands will be exerted. Such a teacher creates the opportunity for experiential education but considers it the student's responsibility to transform the experience into learning, i.e., to extract meaning from experience. Since the direct form of experiential teaching requires much contact between teacher and student, the ratio of students per teacher must be kept small. As soon as the teacher tries to accomodate more students, a hierarchy develops in which teachers supervise and train students to serve as teachers to other students, etc. This arrangement requires the development not only of skills in the area of experiential teaching, but also in training and supervision. In other words the hierarchy leads to an elaboration of types of activities, all of which need funding, evaluation, a system of reporting, etc. As the teacher moves away from the direct experience of the student, s/he becomes an administrator of a program.[2] This phenomenon of movement away from direct participation in the activity for which an organization exists, to administering that activity is characteristic of our bureaucratic society. Success in accomplishing goals leads to promotion which leads to an increase in administrative responsibilities. But the satisfactions one derives from administration are different from those of teaching or the explication of experience.

In addition, if students are competing for opportunities to teach other students, a dilemma arises when making choices. Should the slot go to the student-teacher who needs experience because s/he is weak, or to the student-teacher who has already proven her/himself?

Since the role of the teacher in an experiential education program is ambiguous, it is likely that the person filling that role will question her/his identity and peer group. What is the reference group of the teacher within an experiential education program? The answer hinges on the context in which the program is housed, and there are many different options within universities. People who are responsible for such a course or program will be more satisfied in their work if they are morally supported by others with whom they identify. These reference groups give support in exchange for investment in the group. In my own case, we created a consortium of persons responsible for experiential courses or programs on campus. This group called P.L.A.N. (Placement Learning Apprenticeship Network) meets regularly to strategize, share resources, and get feedback on concerns.

But since one's identity at a university stems from one's relation to academic units, the issue of the reference group remains. And here we run into the problem that experiential education is not

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[2] Seidman and Rappaport (1974) describe a structurally similar program at the University of Illinois in which clinical psychologists are able to combine the administration of a large bureaucracy of service delivery with research and training.

not connected with any particular discipline. It is not inherently tied to psychology, social work, law, etc., rather it is a *way of learning*. From this point of view a university could be divided into departments of classrooms, libraries, experiential education, etc. But universities are primarily organized according to substance (*what* we teach) rather than method (*how* we teach). Experiential education is deviant in a society which values specialization. My fantasy to see every academic department on campus develop an experiential component will remain a fantasy, although there are some signs of change as faculty tire of conventional teaching formats. At the University of Michigan we have the New England Literature Program in which students examine that literature by canoeing up and down the streams of New England, attending town meetings, etc., and we have political science courses which build on student participation in elections, etc. But most academic departments disparage experiential education because the traditional model of the teacher transmitting knowledge is replaced by alternative roles for the teacher, untestable knowledge acquisition on the part of the student, and a breakdown of distinction between professionals and non-professionals.

SOCIAL SERVICE AND SOCIAL CHANGE

Once a student is involved in a field setting and the newness of his/her activities has worn off, s/he begins to question their implications. A student working in a mental hospital or a prison might doubt whether a particular patient or inmate should be forced to remain in that setting. That student questions the fit between the agency and a particular client. In other cases students question whether the agency should exist at all or if it should be changed. In some cases students observe agency staff behavior which is improper or inadequate. What perspective should the teacher take on the conclusions which the student draws? Should the student merely observe, discuss, and analyze these situations, or should they act on their conclusions? Does a student have the obligation to abide by the rules of a setting which has raised these problems, or can the student work to change it? And what role does the teacher have in this - encouragement, warning, partnership?

Does a setting which accepts students for educational purposes have the right to expect the student not to disrupt it? But what about the need for change that the student uncovers? These issues should surface every semester, never to be truly resolved. The dilemma of these questions for experiential education is heightened because the teacher is responsible to the agency for the student's action even when there is conflict between the student's and teacher's attitudes as to the appropriate action. In my own program we have struck a compromise on this conflict between the desire to provide social service and the perception of a need for social change. We ask those students who would like to be involved in social change to select change-oriented settings, and those who select traditional settings to not disrupt the status quo. This resolution is only mildly satisfactory. Like all conflicts, this one has led to factionalism within the program - there are "the politicals" who advocate social change and "the conservatives" who wish to retain our entree into the community.

Other students see additional problems stemming from their participation in work settings, i.e., they fear that their student work contributes to unemployment. But even those students who believe we should terminate our involvement in conservative settings or those in which we might be contributing to unemployment are disturbed and therefore torn by the realization that we would be denying service to those who need it. The choice then must be made between short-range service or long-range change. The question of which settings we should work in is further complicated by the criterion of its potential contribution to the student's education. Not only should it have a worthwhile objective, be serving the appropriate clients, not be generating unemployment, etc., but it must have a clearly defined function and need for students, provide personnel for supervision, and have an opportunity for learning issues of substance. Agencies or settings which are strong on certain criteria are weak on others, e.g., those agencies which could truly use student help are frequently sufficiently understaffed so that they cannot provide students with adequate supervision.

In this discussion of three problematic features of experiential education - program definition, the role of the teacher, and the conflict between social service and social change - we can see areas of strain. Although this strain has its personal costs it also provides the arena for growth within the programs, as individuals struggle with the issues and attempt to forge workable, satisfying solutions.

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ACADEMIC CREDIT AND VOLUNTEERISM: AN APPROACH IN THE LIBERAL ARTS

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One promising approach to awarding academic credit for volunteerism involves interdisciplinary team evaluation of individualized degree programs. This is the procedure which has been developed by the University Studies program in the College of Arts and Sciences at the University of Nebraska-Lincoln. University Studies began five years ago with a three-year grant from the Ford Foundation Venture Fund. The program was designed to provide highly motivated (but not necessarily honor) students with an alternate route to the baccalaureate degree. It rapidly drew students who saw their volunteer work to be an important part of their college learning and who wished to apply this experience toward their degree requirements. Consequently, the interdisciplinary team of faculty members administering University Studies evolved methods for evaluating volunteer work for credit which they consider to be compatible with a liberal arts philosophy.

This paper describes the procedures for awarding credit, the significance of motives and purposes for volunteer work, problems encountered, and current directions. Nine student cases are analyzed for illustrative purposes.

ADMINISTRATION AND NATURE OF UNIVERSITY STUDIES

University Studies is administered by an eight-member liberal arts faculty team known as Fellows. They represent all areas of the college and currently include Fellows from English, chemistry, geography, history, political science, psychology, and physics. They work closely with other faculty members in and outside of the college. The Fellows are authorized by the faculty of the College of Arts and Sciences to establish a unique set of degree requirements for each student admitted to the program. The requirements normally specified for baccalaureate degrees, including distribution requirements, do not necessarily have to be met by a student in University Studies. In practice, most students meet the requirements and indeed have more than the total number of hours normally required for degrees. There are currently about one hundred students in University Studies including a number of returning adults.

RELATIONSHIP OF VOLUNTEERISM TO DEGREE PROGRAMS

The initial evaluation of volunteer work usually occurs when a student seeks admission to the University Studies program. Students seeking admission to the program present proposals which include biographical information, their academic record to date, a description of educational and career objectives, if known, and a proposed list of courses and projects including out-of-classroom work such as volunteer service. Volunteerism, for purposes of this paper, is defined as any nonclassroom activity designed to be of service to a larger community--from serving agencies within the university community to serving institutions and programs in the city, state and region. The entire faculty discusses and evaluates each proposal collectively in one of the weekly staff meetings.

This is the first stage of evaluating volunteer work for credit. It may arise as a result of a student request or it may be suggested by the faculty. Often a student will refer to previous volunteer work, propose a specific future project, or allude to hopes for incorporating some type of volunteer activity in his/her degree program. At times a member of the interdisciplinary faculty team will propose volunteer work, particularly if it serves to integrate components of the student's degree program. On occasion, the faculty will secure a specific volunteer position for the student, and at other times the student will find work on his own or else seek help from the Community Involvement Service at the University of Nebraska-Lincoln which places several hundred student volunteers yearly.

Once the decision has been reached to include voluntary work on a degree program, the student has two options: He or she may sign up for a specified number and level of credit hours under the heading, University Studies, or he or she may sign up for Independent Study in the department of the faculty supervisor of the project.

EVALUATION PROCESS

Since the relationship of the volunteer work to the degree program has already been established and agreed upon by a faculty team whose various perspectives have been meshed, the evaluation process from this point onward becomes relatively simple. The number of volunteer hours required of the student per credit hour is negotiable, depending upon several variables, including the amount of academic work which accompanies it. As a guideline, however, the faculty has found to be useful the formula proposed by CAEL, The Cooperative Assessment of Experiential Learning project, which suggests three hours of study in a week (in and out of class) over a semester to one hour of credit for that semester. [Nesbitt, 1975]. The faculty also reviewed similar formulas used by liberal arts colleges in evaluating for credit programs such as overseas studies and other nonaccredited academic programs in this country. Normally, students work much more than the CAEL formula proposes, but this serves as a minimum standard and a guideline for students.

The types of learning to be evaluated are classified into two general categories, general and subject area. The subject area (political science, English, history, etc.) is generally evaluated by a faculty member from that area, and the general learning is usually evaluated by the specific advisor assigned to the student from the interdisciplinary team administering University Studies. In cases where the student has additional advisors outside of the faculty of University Studies or other faculty supervisors for specific volunteer work, the initial evaluation will be done by them. At times, the written documentation of volunteer work, as indicated in Table I, is circulated among the entire faculty of University Studies and to graduate students for reactions. In this way, the responsibility for assessing the learning experience rests with the faculty from several disciplines. This team approach also helps the student identify areas needing strengthening so that adjustments can be made in his/her degree program. The specific types of evidence required for evaluation are described below.

One of the most difficult problems in evaluation arises in situations where the student acquires competencies that do not match the content of a specific college course. This presents problems for both students and faculty. For the student, it is often a question of not knowing what sort of learning he/she is actually acquiring; for the faculty of University Studies, it is a question of deciding what type of learning constitutes the general education every liberal arts student ought to be getting irrespective of the major emphasis of the degree program. The initial approach of the faculty of University Studies was to find a way to provide guidelines to students about what sort of learning they were acquiring. For this, the faculty reviewed and excerpted materials produced by CAEL [Forrest, 1975 and Nesbitt, 1975]. One-page descriptions containing guidelines for students and guidelines for faculty were prepared.

As more students engaged in all types of experiential learning through University Studies programs, the faculty had to face the issue of describing the expectations of the liberal arts graduate in terms of general education, that is, outcome. Recently, the University of Nebraska-Lincoln through the University Studies faculty became a participating institution in the long-term project called COMP, the College Outcome Measures Project, organized by the American College Testing program (ACT). This project is attempting to develop measurement devices and procedures to assess general education knowledge and skills. An initial step was the definition and agreement by the ten participating educational institutions and systems and ACT on the outcomes expected of a liberal arts graduate. The faculty of University Studies reviewed and contributed to the list of six outcomes which include the areas of communication, solving problems, clarifying values, functioning within social institutions, using science and technology, and using art. (A full list of subheadings for each outcome is provided in Appendix A). These outcomes can now be used by the faculty of University Studies in reviewing and evaluating the volunteer work of the students. An opportunity has also been provided students in University Studies to participate in the spring, 1977, field testing of assessment tests covering these areas. The results of these will be used to help the faculty of University Studies determine their usefulness in future evaluation of the general learning components of students' volunteer work.

With the agreement by the faculty team on general outcomes and with a potential method for assessing these outcomes, it is possible the faculty will be in a position to respond to a new and growing category of student requests, namely that of acquiring credit for volunteer work prior to becoming a student in the program. This pertains especially to returning adults. To date, previous volunteer work has generally been viewed as an asset to a student's educational program but academic credit has not been awarded. The faculty has acknowledged that the volunteer work may have provided either general or subject area competencies and at times has not required specific course work which presumably would duplicate this learning.

ANALYSIS OF CASES

The nine cases selected for analysis represent the wide variety of volunteer work on student programs. Several involve children; and the others include work with the handicapped, foster parents, Indians, a labor union, a free university, a rural affairs center, and an historical society. Table I outlines the activities of the students' work, lists the general and subject areas in which learning was acquired, and the nature of evidence presented for evaluation purposes. The cases as a whole provide illustrations of all of the procedures of evaluation and evidence used so far by the faculty of University Studies.

Table I about here

The amount of credit awarded for the volunteer work listed in Table I ranges from three to six semester hours in most cases to a maximum of thirty in case number 8 (Working with Handicapped). Although the faculty has not established a rigid upper limit on the amount of credit from volunteer work which a student may apply on his/her degree program, the general guideline approved in the fall of 1976 for all experiential education was that the amount should not exceed the equivalent of one year's work, that is thirty hours. Exceptions will be made, and have been, in order to maintain consistency with the general philosophy of University Studies, that is, individualized degree programs. In the instance cited in the table, nearly all of the volunteer work was combined with a traditional research effort resulting in a lengthy research paper read and graded as other research papers would be.

The methods of evaluation in all instances include a conference with a faculty advisor(s). If the faculty advisor(s) are not members of the faculty of University Studies, usually a conference is held between the immediate supervisor and a representative of the University Studies faculty. In instances where the volunteer work has produced published material or agency reports (the student working with the Native American Rights Fund, free university, the Center for World Affairs, for example), it was read by the advisor and the faculty of University Studies. The grade is assigned by the immediate supervisor and often it is on a Pass/Fail basis, as some faculty members prefer.

Although on-site visitation is listed in only one case, free university, this is becoming more frequent for students who are working part time in "human service" agencies. Although some studies stress the importance of this type of evaluation, in general the faculty of University Studies has not found this to be essential, nor indeed especially helpful. The personal conferences with the students and written materials have, in fact, been the most useful evaluation procedures.

There is one case in Table I (number 4--Children's Work) which did not result in academic credit. It is included in this analysis along with an identification of the potential general and subject areas of learning as an illustration of the type of volunteer work which is used by the faculty team in planning the degree program. In this case, the student simply wanted to learn to interact with children. The volunteer work would be evaluated by the faculty from the standpoint of identifying specific courses in child development which would be helpful to the student, or indeed to indicate ones which the student should bypass. In the future, students who engage in volunteer work without requesting credit for their degree programs may nevertheless wish to take the assessment tests in order to identify strong and weak points in their learning process.

At times there may be some variation in the evaluation process stemming from the motives the student has for engaging in volunteer work. For example, if the student is trying to identify career interests (number 5--Children's Recreation) or simply trying to broaden his/her general education, such as studying aspects of the community (number 4--Children's Work--Recreation and Probation), a self evaluation and general report of the activities along with the conference may be sufficient to determine whether the expected learning has been acquired. If, on the other hand, the volunteer work is in preparation for graduate work or a career in a specific area, then the evaluation without exception requires detailed records (journals) and/or research papers and/or close supervision, including perhaps on-site visits as well as conferences. It should be noted that the cases described in Table I include both on and off campus volunteer work and there is no variation in the evaluation process.

GENERAL OBSERVATIONS

The success of a program which has been offered for five years only is hard to measure, and to sort out the value of volunteer work is even more challenging. However, there is some favorable evidence. In 1975 when the program of University Studies was evaluated by the entire faculty of the College of Arts and Sciences before permanently incorporating it into the curriculum, a survey showed that all graduates to date were employed or in graduate or professional schools of their choice. Some of these had engaged in volunteer work prior to graduation. A number of students who have worked in volunteer agencies have been asked to stay on for further volunteer work, been offered salaried jobs, or else were sought out by other agencies who have become aware of them. This includes five of the cases analyzed in Table I. Students themselves have encouraged other students to incorporate volunteer work on their degree programs. The most useful indicator of success of volunteer work, however, is to be found in the evaluation process itself, the students' own self evaluation and in particular the student-advisor conferences. Just as faculty members can discern the merit of student work as they hold conferences while supervising undergraduate or graduate theses, so can they discern value in all experiential education evaluation, including volunteerism. This is what sustains the endorsement of the faculty of the University Studies of volunteerism, and this is what dispelled initial doubts about the worth of awarding academic credit for this type of activity. Nevertheless, the faculty, hoping to reinforce their impressionistic evidence, is now planning to contact students five years after graduation to solicit their impressions of the value of their volunteer work.

Whatever success this program has encountered with respect to volunteer work for credit, the faculty stresses the following two characteristics: Interdisciplinary team advising and individualized degree programs. The face-to-face contact by the faculty to engage in a frank exchange of views on each student's program and projects has time and again produced specific modifications designed to strengthen the program. Indeed, at times a program prepared by a student in close consultation with one faculty member has proved to be unsatisfactory until changes reflecting the perspectives of different disciplines were incorporated. Indeed, it appears to be the interdisciplinary team advising aspect which assures students of cohesive, integrated programs which are defensible before an entire faculty of liberal arts. Interestingly enough, these features considered by the faculty of University Studies to be so crucial do not receive attention in the reports of tentative findings by researchers who are attempting to identify the characteristics of successful programs [Experiential Education, 1977]. It may also be worth noting that the faculty of University Studies, in dealing with credit for volunteerism and other types of experiential education, initially began before the era of declining enrollments. They did not act under pressure from or in response to declining enrollments, as some reports suggest [Anderson, 1976]. This enabled them to move slowly, experimenting and revising as experience suggested.

Some general needs with respect to volunteerism and academic credit have been identified by the faculty of University Studies; these are not yet met satisfactorily. For some students there is inadequate preparation for their volunteer role. This preparation might conceivably be met in an academic classroom, but it is possible that it might be more appropriately met by professional volunteer administrators or by non-academic services on campuses. This is an area worth exploring; self evaluations of student volunteers suggest that more preparation would be helpful in their work. Also, as the number of student volunteers increases, the problem of coordination on campus and between the campus and community may become serious. It is worth overcoming however, from two perspectives at least. In the first place, the awarding of credit for volunteer work increases the "outward forms" of recognition of the value of volunteerism, an objective sought by some professional volunteer administrators [Katz, 1976]. But more importantly, no problem of this type should be permitted to reduce the opportunities for students to incorporate volunteer work on their degree programs since it clearly enhances many areas of students' competencies.

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TABLE I

Activities, Learning, Evidence in Selected Cases

Learning: General & Subject Area	Volunteer Activities	Evidence
	1. Native American Rights Fund	
General: *COMP I.A-D II II.A-D,F,G III III.A-F IV IV.A,C,E Subjects: Indian Studies Criminal Justice Sociology Speech Communication History Political Science English	a. development, funding, implementation of all-Indian correctional - helping prepare legal case for inmates - helping prepare feasibility study on tribally controlled community corrections center - talks at community meetings - analysis of meetings; preparation of resulting questions and tentative answers b. helping prison inmates reach out-of-court settlement on issues including right to: - wear long hair - bring in traditional Indian spiritual leaders - develop Indian studies program	1. Preparation of dossier on all NARF activities with narrative, memos, letters 2. Court Order 3. Conference with faculty advisors
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	2. Coordinator, Free University	
General: COMP I I.A-D II II.A-D,F IV IV.C VI	-recruiting volunteer students, faculty -assessing local problems -searching experience of other schools for solutions to problems -national conference -public talks with slide presentation	1. Submission of dossier with narrative, journal, samples of materials published, memos, letters, office instructions 2. Conference with faculty advisors

* For descriptions of general learning areas as identified in COMP project, see Appendix A

Learning: General & Subject Area	Volunteer Activities	Evidence
Subjects: Journalism English Speech Communications	-organizing administrative procedures and directing personnel, office -constructing,and administering evaluation instrument -preparation of publications including course description booklet	3. On site visit by faculty advisor
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	3. State Historical Society	
General: COMP I I.C-F II III III.C IV Subject: History	-processing manuscripts -researching paper of various individuals -searching public records of churches and soil and water conservation agencies -searching obituaries for constructing family histories	1. Report from supervisor 2. Conference with faculty supervisor 3. Review by faculty advisor of sampling of work
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	4. Children's Work	
General: COMP I I.B II II.A,B III III.C IV IV.C Subjects: Psychology Criminal Justice Educational Psychology Education	a. recreational aid for City Park and Recreation Department -after school and summer recreation activities for 7-13 year olds -staff meetings to plan organized activities in bowling, swimming contests, field days, parties b. VIP--Volunteers in Probation, City Juvenile Department -tutoring -attending seminars to learn to handle situations such as runaway children	1. Self evaluation report 2. Conference with faculty advisor

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Learning: General & Subject Area	Volunteer Activities	Evidence
	5. Children's Recreation	
General: COMP IV IV.A Subjects: Psychology Recreation	-talking, playing with 3 children during 1 semester, 3-4 times weekly	1. Report on activities 2. Conference with faculty advisor
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	6. Liaison Between County Welfare Department and Chapter of Foster and Adoptive Parents	
General: COMP I I.A-D II II.A-C III IV IV.A-C,E Subjects: English Speech Communications Sociology Political Science	-speaking to prospective foster parents -securing help from Junior League to support a foster parent education program -dissemination of information on other programs -national conference -lobbying, Nebraska Legislature	1. Report on activities 2. Conference with faculty adviso 3. Text of speeches
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	7. Center for Rural Affairs	
General: COMP I I.A-F Subjects: English Economics Agricultural Economics	-research on land tenure study -helping prepare report, "Large Farm Units, Corporate Farms and Farm Management in Northeast Nebraska: An Inventory"	1. Report on activities 2. Submission of land tenure study 3. Conference with faculty advisor 4. Supervisor's letter

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Learning: General & Subject Area	Volunteer Activities	Evidence
	8. Working with Handicapped	
General: COMP I I.A-F II III IV Subjects: English Physical Education Recreation Educational Psychology Special Education Speech Communications	a. 6-weeks swimming instruction -teaching volunteers -counseling volunteers b. reviving and chairing Lincoln Youth Association for Retarded -supervising 20 volunteers -promotional talks c. supervised apartment leader, on semester -living with 3 retarded adults -developing and running effective life skills program for adults d. 11-week program of coaching mentally retarded athletes in grade school e. staff assistant in city recreation programs for exceptional children -constructed and conducted 12-week evaluation project f. 10-day camp for mentally and physically handicapped -planning camp -supervising camp -conducting 3-day training session for volunteers g. assistant director, 6-week day camp for mentally and physically handicapped children -directing 2-day orientation for volunteers -supervising volunteers -conducting behavior counts on counselor-camper interactions in program evaluation	1. Formal research papers for each project 2. Conference with faculty 3. Reports from supervisors as appropriate

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Learning: General & Subject Area	Volunteer Activities	Evidence
	9. Labor Union	
General: COMP I I.A-D II II.A-F,G III	a. serving as store steward -explaining contracts -resolving problems in contract requirements b. participating in contract negotiations -assisting in initial negotiations -helping present contract to workers	1. Supervisor's letter 2. Report and evaluation of activities 3. Conference with faculty supervisor
Subjects: Speech Communications Political Science History Management		

Appendix A

General Education Outcomes Identified by COMP

The following six outcomes have been identified by participants in COMP, the College Outcome Measures Project to be certain results to be expected from the general education components of a liberal arts degree.* COMP is organized by the American College Testing program (ACT) and includes 10 participating educational institutions and systems including the University of Nebraska-Lincoln.

1. Communicating--Can send and receive information in a variety of modes (written, graphic, oral, numeric, and symbolic), within a variety of settings (one-to-one, in small and large groups), and for a variety of purposes (for example, to inform, to understand, to persuade, and to analyze).

    A. Can receive information from oral presentations, media presentations, and nonverbal cues.

    B. Can send information via speech, media, and nonverbal presentations.

    C. Can receive information from written materials.

    D. Can send information using written materials.

    E. Can receive information from numeric and graphic representations.

    F. Can send information using numeric and graphic representations.

II. Solving Problems--Can analyze a variety of problems (for example, scientific, social, personal); select or create solutions to problems; and implement solutions.

    A. Can identify and define problems (objectives and constraining factors).

    B. Can select approaches to solve problems.

    C. Can generate possible solutions, hypotheses, or testable propositions.

    D. Can collect various forms of information ("data") regarding proposed solutions with respect to a problem and its constraints.

    E. Can determine the logical consistency among the information obtained, the problem as defined, and the hypotheses or solutions proposed.

    F. Can determine the solution to be implemented.

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*Excerpts from the March, 1977 Progress Report of the College Outcome Measures Project (COMP) prepared by Aubrey Forrest, Director.

G. Can propose or select procedures to evaluate ("confirm" the appropriateness of) the solution chosen for implementation.

H. Can evaluate the process by which a problem was "solved."

III. Clarifying Values--Can identify one's personal values and the personal values of other individuals, understand how personal values develop, and analyze the implications of decisions made on the basis of personally held values.

A. Can identify the major values, and issues usually faced, in daily adult life in one's own and other cultures.

B. Can assess a set of values for internal consistency.

C. Can identify the major influences in the development of values in individuals.

D. Can analyze rationales for value choices.

E. Can infer personal values from behavior.

F. Can analyze the implications of decisions made on the basis of values.

IV. Functioning within Social Institutions--Can identify those activities and institutions which constitute the social aspects of a culture (for example, governmental and economic systems, religion, marital and familial institutions, employment, and civic volunteer and recreational organizations); understand the impact that social institutions have on individuals in a culture; analyze one's own and others' personal functioning within social institutions.

A. Can identify those activities and institutions which constitute the social aspects of a culture.

B. Can describe the structures and functions that underlie social institutions.

C. Can explain the reciprocal relationship between social institutions and individuals.

D. Can explain the principles of the development and change of social institutions.

E. Can explain the implicit and explicit restraints and freedoms within the social institutions, and can predict how degree of involvement places one in a conflicting or compatible state.

V. Using Science and Technology--Can identify those activities and products which constitute the scientific/technological aspects of a culture (for example, transportation, housing, energy, processed food, clothing, health maintenance, entertainment and recreation, mood-altering, national defense, communication, and data processing); understand the impact of such activities and products on the individuals and the physical environment in a culture; analyze the uses of technological products in a culture and one's personal use of such products.

A. Can identify those activities and products which constitute the scientific/technological aspects of a culture.

B. Can describe scientific concepts, laws or principles that underlie scientific/technological activities and products.

C. Can explain the impact of technology on the natural (physical and biological) environment in which it occurs.

D. Can explain the impact of technology on the individual and her/his culture.

E. Can predict the consequences of the introduction of technology into a culture, including considerations of the scientific principles involved and of the environmental and cultural impacts of the technique.

VI. Using Art--Can identify those activities and products which constitute the artistic aspects of a culture (for example, graphic art, music, drama, literature, dance, sculpture, film, architecture); understand the impact that art, in its various forms, has on individuals in a culture; analyze uses of works of art within a culture and one's personal use of art.

A. Can identify those activities and products which constitute the artistic/humanistic aspects of a culture.

B. Can describe the elements (e.g., sensory, compositional, expressive, and substantive) that constitute artistic/humanistic activities and products.

C. Can explain the impact of artistic/humanistic expressions on individuals.

D. Can explain the development of aesthetic awareness and theory from a number of perspectives.

E. Given the characteristics of a culture, can judge which of several artistic/humanistic expressions would be most congruent with those characteristics.

THE IMPORTANCE OF COLLEGE VOLUNTEER PROGRAMS

Bob McDonnell, Madison House

For years now, at least since the early sixties, educators and administrators around the country have struggled to understand and provide acceptable rationale for college volunteer programs. In arguments against such programs, faculty have sometimes claimed that volunteer activities are "not academic enough"; frequently faculty have been stingy with credit. Administrators have complained about the expense of volunteer programs and the university's lack of resources. What resources are available, administrators have claimed, must be directed toward the classroom, the real business of the university.

To counter the resistance of faculty and administration, as well as to answer the criticisms of other observors, promoters of student volunteer programs have conjured up a variety of justifications. One of the earliest was that volunteer programs represent a necessary diversion. Students are idealistic, altruistic, they need a program to answer their dreams and burn out their passions before they get down to the real business of that grand old cliche of "working through the system."

The argument that volunteerism is a diversion proved limited, especially in light of the various successes that student programs achieved around the country in the early and mid-sixties. Student volunteers made progress in the fields of civil rights, politics, and poverty. They also mounted serious challenges to the character and structure of the university itself. Relevance became the watchword on campuses around the country. University officials were besieged by complaints that too many courses were required and that too many courses were useless in the "real" world.

By the close of the sixties, institutions lucky enough to possess functioning volunteer programs found themselves bragging to alumni (and anyone else who would listen) that their students were "constructive and not destructive." Struggling programs now found themselves the recipients of much more university cooperation. Publicity and funding were easier to obtain as administrators began to show interest in community activities. Academic credit became available. Institutions without volunteer service programs found themselves scrambling to establish them.

Lately we find ourselves more than half-way through the more somber seventies. Gone are the great moral crusades and, in some cases, even the students; enrollment is falling at many schools. Students are "serious" and career-oriented once again. Relevance, strangely enough, has transformed itself to mean professional relevance: how will this course or this activity make me more marketable to a professional school or a profession?

College volunteer programs are now widely rationalized as a means of refining the student's resume, as a chance to gain valuable pre-professional training or job experience.

All of these arguments for the worthiness of the college volunteer program possess merit. College volunteerism is a diversion, a break from the academic routine; it does deliver needed social services in some communities and make possible some real, if limited, social change; and it does provide its volunteers with valuable job experience. Unfortunately, all of these justifications, while possessing merit, are too limited. Frankly, it is my belief that the involvement of an educational institution with a volunteer program does not need to be justified or rationalized. Thoughtful examination of the role of a university and the role of a volunteer program will reveal that the two blend homogeneously with each other and with the essence of Education and Learning.

It is the misfortune of many American schools that they have muddied their high ideals and lost sight of the real function they can serve in society---that of truly educating, and not merely training, the society's individuals. As early as 1968, T.R. McConnell, writing in Educational Record, complained that "many institutions that called themselves liberal arts colleges had lost a distinctive character, and, in fact, had ceased to be liberal arts colleges by making all sorts of concessions to vocationalism." More recently, University of Virginia professor Roger Shattuck, writing in a weekly student publication, addressed the problem directly. Shattuck noted that the typical undergraduate university education is either over-organized or completely unorganized. Students are unaware of the real meaning and potential of a true education, and this is the fault of the educator as much as anyone.

> The most valuable elements of a college education take place far from the classroom, in private discussions and meditations, on long hikes and bike rides, in writing poetry and reading a book no one assigned. Ideally a university should continue to serve its purpose effectively even if courses are suspended for weeks, for the essential activities are still going on. There is no advice I know of to give students in order to create that essential intellectual subculture. But let us all try to remember its importance.

It is my argument that a well-organized, purposeful college volunteer program can be the crucible wherein the individual student's "essential intellectual subculture" is formed or partly formed.

Madison House, organized in 1969 at the University of Virginia, is a conglomeration of 14 volunteer community service programs. All of Madison House's programs are student staffed and directed. Each year, for the past seven years, more than 1000 volunteers, nearly all of them university students, have donated their time to community service through one or another of these programs. Few of these student volunteers have ever received academic credit for their efforts. They have, however, learned a lot. A look at a few of the Madison House programs will provide a response to the question "How is volunteer service an educational experience?"

One program at Madison House, the Charlottesville Housing Improvement Program (CHIP), concerns itself with the repair or complete renovation of substandard housing that is owned and occupied by poverty-level or near poverty-level families. This program had its start as an emergency clean-up project in the wake of disastrous Hurricane Camille in 1969. "Emergency Clean-up", however, proved to be too narrow and short-term a goal for the students who had organized this effort. Soon the program was cleaning and painting numerous area homes which had not been touched by the storm, but were in need of repair. Volunteers began making their first fruitful experiments with roof repair, porch repair and winterization. By 1974, these extensive, but largely "cosmetic" efforts had proven too narrow; CHIP had developed to the point where it was prepared to become an incorporated, non-profit contracting firm.

Since 1974, CHIP has been exclusively engaged in the renovation of substandard and condemned housing. Last year 65 area homes were totally renovated (total renovation) usually including a new roof, extensive interior repair, new plumbing and electrical systems, etc.). Relying on a labor force composed largely of volunteers, CHIP accomplished the work for one-half the commercial price.

But what has all this to do with education? A lot. The thing to remember is that CHIP was begun and developed by student volunteers. Several of those students, long since graduated, now administer CHIP on a full-time basis. CHIP's current director earned his B.A. in Sociology and M.A. in City Planning while serving as a volunteer; a one-time volunteer job has become a career. Even more important is the fact that student volunteers still pass through the ranks of CHIP and still, on a daily or weekly or monthly basis, confront the characteristics of the CHIP world. Along the way they confront their own personal qualities, their yearnings and fears, as they interact with that world.

View practically or vocationally, the CHIP volunteer reaps several benefits from his or her experience. Architecture students can shore up the theory they have received from lectures with some "get your hands dirty" in the field experience; sociology students experience the real meaning of the bureaucratic jargon "poverty level"; psychology students come to know first hand the effects of racism and poverty on an individual's life; commerce students gain some insight into the complications of supplying, coordinating and financing a small construction firm; literature students, because of CHIP's southern, small town, rural setting may realize a profound understanding of the work of Faulkner, Wolfe, or O'Connor.

But there is much more than a practical or vocational viewpoint to consider when one examines the volunteer's experience in CHIP. An afternoon spent with CHIP is a confrontation with one's individual values and with the values of society. In every CHIP project, the family which owns the house undergoing renovation participates in the rebuilding. Work with CHIP is more than a confrontation with rotten lumber, hammer and nails, bruised hands and sore muscles. While working on a CHIP house, the sons and daughters of the middle class who form CHIP's volunteer corps come to know a family totally unlike their own. They learn how these families cope with low income, lack of education, and a society which often discriminates against them socially, racially, educationally, economically, and culturally. Even worse, society may just ignore them.

Volunteers with CHIP come in contact with a world that has little to do with their own background and values. Consequently, a season in the field with CHIP can easily lead to a reassessment of one's own values and background. CHIP may not change what one thinks or believes, it may not change the style in which one lives, but it certainly makes a volunteer think about these things. It makes one realize that there are many, many lives in this world that are lived quite differently from one's own. To acquire a perception of that sort is to acquire an education.

A second Madison House program, which has a history much like CHIP's, is the Consumer Information Service (CIS). CIS began in the early seventies as the project of a handful of law students. At its beginning the program consisted of one telephone over which volunteers received calls from consumers and offered assistance. Today the program has grown to a group of seventy volunteers who are organized into three divisions: the "Action Line" receives consumer complaints and requests for information; the "Trouble$hooter" Staff researches, writes and publishes a local consumer newsletter; and an Information Division maintains a library and carries out in-depth research projects such as the Fall 1975 "Area Banking Survey."

The Consumer world is vastly different from the world of CHIP. But here too volunteers must confront a myriad of problems. Through several years of volunteer experience, the student directors of CIS have learned the meaning of leadership and management; they have shown the initiative necessary to take the program in new directions, and they have executed decisions in order to make those new directions a reality. Volunteers have dealt with a wide variety of people---bank presidents, small merchants, suburban housewives, welfare recipients, school children, large chain-store merchants, mail order firms, chamber of commerce officials, attorneys, and in one case a cattle rustler. These volunteers' most pressing challenge has been that of professionalism. The daily business of a consumer agency takes it right to the heart of the marketplace: the transfer of money in return for goods and services. Each program activity, whether is be an individual complaint, a request for information on a product or firm, a small-scale price survey, or an in-depth research report, has a dollar and cents effect on a number of individuals in the community. The program demands disciplined performance in research, writing, and oral communication. The volunteers are not working in a laboratory situation. Assignments cannot be rewritten. Mistakes cause confusion, anger, and distrust. Success contributes to an improved atmosphere throughout the community. The volunteer, whether a commerce, psychology, journalism, or pre-law major, will find numerous connections between his community service work and his academic pursuits.

One of the more traditional Madison House programs, traditional in the sense that most people take it for granted that student volunteers can to some degree perform the function, is tutoring. At Madison House the tutoring program began in the same manner that many grassroots volunteer movements, especially student movements, began, as a response to a visible local need.

Tutoring at Madison House has gone through several phases. One year the volunteers conducted a survey and discovered that the average tutee raised his or her grade one level after a year of assistance from a tutoring volunteer. In other years, the volunteers because of poor coordination or an ebb in interest have failed to demonstrate the effectiveness of their program. Nevertheless, they have been out in the local schools tutoring. Today the program involves about 150 volunteers who tutor in ten local schools. Volunteers participate in special enrichment programs, assist teachers in the classroom, and deal one-to-one with many young students. Co-directors of this year's program, both third year university students, have instituted a number of policies which will provide a detailed veiw of the program by year's end. Each volunteer is required to maintain a journal that details the tutoring experience. Each tutor is asked to record in as much detail as possible what skill each session covers, what problems the student is experiencing, examples of the tutee's work and a plan of each upcoming lesson.

The journal accomplishes many tasks for the individual volunteer and the entire program. By encouraging each volunteer to articulate and write down the tutee's learning problem, the program is able to set goals and guide the tutorial sessions in a specific direction. The process also encourages volunteers to think ahead; volunteers don't ad lib a lesson. Copies of the journal are left with the school and the program office. This way the tutor knows what progress has been made, and Madison House and the school know what services have been provided. Communications are increased so that any volunteer with a problem can be lent advice and assistance. The journals also represent a growing resource file of successful lesson plans and tutorial techniques that future volunteers can learn from and use.

The benefits that a volunteer can receive from his own service as a tutor are substantial. The volunteer expresses his own thoughts and implements them in a real-life situation as opposed to a laboratory or an exercise book. As one Madison House tutor remarked: "The most important thing for me was the process of re-examining subject matter that I had learned long ago and attempting to communicate that knowledge to another person." This volunteer learned a lot about learning---and thinking---and knowledge itself.

Watching and being able to work with programs like CHIP, CIS, and Tutoring is the most satisfying experience for a volunteer administrator. The small full-time staff at Madison House has constantly been amazed by the talent and ability of its student volunteer directors. To be fair, however, there is another side to Madison House and to any other student volunteer program that I have ever come across---the failure side. To be an effective, useful experience to both the people served and the volunteer, the student volunteer program must not only be well intentioned, it must be well-organized, attentively supervised, and securely financed. Unfortunately, the ingredients for success---solid organization, well developed goals, and consistent execution have not always been present at Madison House or in many other programs. As Norman Manasa pointed out in an article on student volunteers "the typical college volunteer program is like a bright red apple with a rotten core (you don't know something is wrong until you bite into it.)" When the rot sets in, student volunteer programs become open to charges of ripping off the community---the students are learning, although not delivering any service. In effect the students are using the people in the community as guinea pigs.

More than one Madison House program has gone through a period of such uselessness. For various reasons, at different times, some of the volunteer directors have become lackadaisical and irresponsible. Volunteers have been placed in community service positions with little screening and almost no supervision or feedback. The staff has allowed these conditions on occasion to persist too long. To correct the problem it has sometimes become necessary to gently remove a volunteer program director or ask an individual volunteer to leave the program. An unknown but too great a number of volunteers have faded away from their commitment because of poor organization and lack of contact with sound direction. Others have done a bad job.

Volunteer administrators and educators who are associated with or contemplating association with a volunteer program should keep in mind the following: rather than have a bad volunteer, it is better to have no volunteer; rather than have a bad volunteer program it is better to have no volunteer program. Often a volunteer is as highly dedicated and motivated as a professional worker; sometimes he is even as well trained. However, when problems occur, when program management or individual motivation break down, it is the paid worker who has the inspiration of a paycheck to fall back upon. The volunteer does not. He may have guilt feelings, but often they are easily overcome. And it is easy to rationalized the volunteer experience away in terms of inconvenience and other commitments; the volunteer experience will wait until tomorrow. To be effective and to enjoy his experience, the volunteer must be committed. The volunteer must also receive consistent support that is always available. He needs clear tasks and well-defined goals. He needs to be able to know that his freely given time is beneficial to someone other than himself.

The volunteer, to be a good volunteer, must be prepared for the task he is about to assume. This is not to say that the untrained, or unoriented volunteer is not going to learn a lot. On the contrary, his volunteer service will be packed with education. Unfortunately, he will be so busy learning that he won't have the time or the composure to provide any service. We find ourselves hearing again the assertions of "rip-off" and "guinea pig." The volunteer in this situation, usually not because of any fault of his own, is a "one way volunteer." He is delivering nothing while taking from the community. The good volunteer, the effective volunteer, is the "two way volunteer": he gives as he learns and he learns as he gives. As Manasa noted in his essay

> ...he must be willing to admit to himself his own ignorance. He must, in some way, believe that the person whom he has chosen to help has something to teach him which he does not already know, and this something, whether it be about life or himself or another person, is vital to his own existence and which he therefore must learn. Somebody from a university working in the community, for example, must acknowledge that he is there not only to give, but to receive as well; to learn as well as to teach.

College volunteerism can be an effective learning tool. But it does not take place in the thin air of the ivory tower or the aniseptic confines of the laboratory. Volunteer experience takes place in the teeming, muddy waters of the community pond. Every rock thrown makes waves. Real ones.

At Madison House we are a long way from perfect, especially in the area of effectively training our volunteers. But we do insist that every program provide some sort of orientation: Big Brothers and Sisters are interviewed and given the chance to seek professional counseling as well as peer group rap sessions. Head Start tutors are accompanied on their first visit to a family's home by one of the program directors; monthly meetings provide a chance for feedback. Consumer volunteers listen to tapes of hypothetical cases and requests for information before actually working on the telephone; past cases, a volunteer handbook, and a consumer library are available for study. Training, feedback and evaluation are critical to the success of any program. At Madison House we consider improvement in this category one of our highest priorities.

The staff at Madison House provides support and advice to the various student program directors, and through them to the individual volunteers. Financial matters, publicity, recruitment, recordkeeping, and clerical work are centralized by a small paid staff that over the years has fluctuated from three to five. Centralization of these chores allows for maximum use of limited resources, cuts down on duplication, improves communications, and most importantly allows the volunteers to concentrate on the most interesting and educational part of their work---the human side.

Today we live in an academic world polluted by careerism. If a student is not pre-med, then he's pre-law. The college years are not life for many students, they are pre-life. The college degree is a steppingstone to professional or graduate school or a good job, whatever that may be. Students do not learn, they invest their time and talents in return for credits and credentials. Writing recently in The Chronicle of Higher Education, Myron Bloy, Jr. attacked this trend:

> Today's challenge to higher education is that so many young men and women arrive on the educational scene already possessed by such 'hardness of soul' and 'sclerosis of imagination' that it almost amounts to invincible ignorance. They are possessed by a hardnosed, yet quaveringly anxious, careerism, bereft of any real capacity for either moral passion or aesthetic delight...They are, on the contrary, locked in a grim and anxious and lonely struggle for security and status.

Bloy argues that today's students need a Romantic Movement, a course of education that will let them

> understand that any intellectual endeavor worthy of the name inevitably enmeshes one deeper and deeper in the common human condition, in the joy and pain of finding oneself to be a neighbor, especially to the oppressed, and in the absolute necessity, therefore, of exercising moral discernment and decision and action.

Critics will probably call Bloy a Romantic Fool. Though it may be an unpopular position, I should like to apply the same high standard to college volunteer programs. I do not want to see volunteer service by college students written off as a diversion, or pigeon-holed as a pre-professional learning experience. I want to see college volunteer programs recognized as an important feature in the life of the university.

Volunteerism is a mixed bag. But so is life. And what is Education if not the study of life, the study of how to live? College students should volunteer. Volunteer community service can be a confrontation with one's values, with others' values, and with society's values. The volunteer must contemplate and evaluate. He cannot sit back, listen, take notes, and record like a tape. He cannot just absorb. The volunteer must be active. He must perform tasks and make decisions. He must learn from mistakes and failures. Volunteer service places the student in an environment where he must synthesize his own thoughts and experiences; he must pull together the insights that both non-academic and academic learning have provided.

Universities should feel comfortable with the sponsorship of volunteer programs for the same reason that they feel comfortable when they encourage their students to read War and Peace, examine the Heisenberg Uncertaintly Principle, analyze a dream, study the anatomy of a frog, or explore the ecology of a tidepool. Volunteer service, like each of these activities, makes one think. Participating in volunteer service is synonymous with thinking.

One cannot be a good student without constant, active thought; without receptivity to new ideas and ways of doing things. So too, one cannot be a good volunteer without much of the same mental energy. The volunteer, like the student, must constantly evaluate and re-evaluate. The student who participates in the well-run, worthwhile volunteer program finds himself re-evaluating numerous phases of his life: his style and standard of living, his manner of giving and receiving, his choice of the way he will spend his time. One's values are either reinforced or restructured by participation in volunteer service. They do not remain stagnant. They grow and develop. This is the gift of volunteer service. It is also the essence of Education. Viewed in this light, Education and Volunteer Service are one.

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FACULTY VALUES AND STUDENT COMMUNITY SERVICE PROGRAMS

Thomas C. Little, Virginia Internship Program

There has been much talk during the last five years of significant changes in student values. Quantitative efforts to measure changes in values indicate that little, if any, change has actually occurred (Boyer and Dutton, 1976). These studies actually have little significance. It is what the popular media says is true that is important. We hear the media message, find support for it from individual instances, and accept it as generally true, This process is particularly important in youth culture. The young have not adopted a value system; their values fluctuate almost daily. This is what we mean by youth. In this situation the popular images are powerful. The young hear what they are supposed to be and embody it. The myth becomes the reality.

Think back to the late 1960's. In 1970 Thomas Reich, in the Greening of America, described the coming of a new era in our national life. An American revolution was underway. The millenium was in view. The Age of Aquarius was here. Peace was at hand. Everybody was to love one another. Sharing was the order of the day. The economic order was to be non-competitive. College students were bringing in the Kingdom; those of us who were older, holders of corrupt values, and cynical were to be converted by the young. In such a climate student volunteerism was the thing to do and it was done.

The image of the young is different for our day. The media portrait is very different. The young are described as a hard-nosed lot, concerned with what they can grab for themselves even at the expense of another. Grades are everything. They are the ticket to the good life by means of law school, medical school, the good graduate schools. There are stories in the press of pre-med students sabotaging other students' laboratory experiments. The declining job market for graduates is the lead story in the news weeklies. The word is out that rewards are few and for those who can successfully compete. Altruism, concern for the other, is a luxury. Student volunteerism cannot help but be a casualty of this image, sterotypical though it may be.

This is a conference on volunteerism in higher education. It hardly seems appropriate to make it a platform for announcing an obituary, and this is not my purpose. I am convinced, with others, that those things we valued in student volunteerism can be, and to a greater degree, in a new movement in higher education. This new movement is experiential education. If we are to have students in any number involved in community service it will be in an educational context and not through volunteerism as we have known it.

Experiential education is not a generally specific term. It is a catch-all term for a number of educational efforts which have the common characteristic of learning by doing. For our purposes it can be defined as a program to facilitate learning through the experience of work in the community where the learning objectives are specified prior to the experience (Sexton and Ungerer, 1975). This definition does not describe a new phenomena in higher education. It simply provides a conceptual base for some old realities, such as work-study programs, internships, practicums, field experience programs, etc.

Experiential education programs are very much in accord with the student values of today. Students today are concerned that their education has relevance for their entrance into the world of work. Students are concerned about future employability. Work experience in experiential education programs can provide many benefits to students with these concerns. In their work they can clarrify their own values, identify the work-related skills they have and develop new skills, explore vocational interests, observe professionals at work in particular vocations, and develop contacts for use in securing future employment. These are very tangible and desired benefits. If a feeling of altruism was the basis for community service in the late 1960's, today it is the student's concern that his educational experience have career relevance.

Experiential education, particularly learning through work experience in the community, has been identified and supported as a desired goal for our nation's system of higher education since 1970. I offer two bits of evidence for this contention. In the late 1960's and early 1970's the most massive study ever made of one nation's system of higher education was made in this country. This was the famous, some would say notorious, study by the Carnegie Commission on Higher Education. Millions of dollars were spent, almost a hundred studies and reports were made. As the Commission ended its work it identified fourteen areas deserving of special attention. One of these recommendations was for the "Extension and improvement of a series of educational channels for young people to enter adult life and work and service and not through college attendance alone" (Priorities for Action: Final Report of the Carnegie Commission on Higher Education, 1973, p. 92). This recommendation came from the earlier report of the Commission. One theme from that study is capsulated in this statement and recommendation:

> Society would gain if work and study were mixed throughout a lifetime, thus reducing the sense of sharply compartmentalized roles of isolated students v. workers and of youth v. isolated age. The sense of isolation would be reduced if more students were also workers and if more workers could also be students; if the ages mixed on the job and in the classroom in a more normally structured type of community; if all members of the community valued both study and work and had a better chance to understand the flow of life from youth to age. Society would be more integrated across the lines that now separate students and workers, youth and age. (Less Time, More Options: Education Beyond the High School, 1971, p. 2)

These recommendations have not fallen on deaf ears. The Fund for the Improvement of Postsecondary Education was established as a funding agency in the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare to stimulate those innovations suggested by the Commission. Work experience as a legitimate and needed educational innovation is identified as a priority in the current guidelines for this Federal funding agency,

> In the 1960s following Sputnik there was an almost unquestioning belief in the value of postsecondary education. It was a period of expanding support and growing enrollments. Education, it was commonly believed, would solve a wide range of problems confronting society. In the 1970s, however, belief is giving way to skepticism about the effectiveness of education at all levels and particularly beyond high school. This loss of confidence in education is in part a valid response to shortcomings in the traditional content and pedagogy of our colleges and universities.
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> There is some question whether the combination of knowledge and skills needed to function effectively in today's society is supported by the disciplines which dominate most colleges and universities. Learners want more than knowledge; they want to develop abilities that will permit them to perform effectively in work as well as in their civic and social life. Many are concerned with their continuing personal development and the use of concentrated educational activity as a basis for that lifelong learning. The traditional organization of knowledge may too often frustrate these needs.
>
> Moreover, the established methods of instruction may never have served more than a small minority adequately. For instance, one study of the lecture mode showed that students tested immediately after a lecture, with access to their notes and to a prepared summary, retained no more than 42 percent of the lecture's content. Tested one week later without their notes, the students could recall only 17 percent of the lecture's content.
>
> These combined circumstances lead to central concerns for postsecondary education. Can we move beyond an interest in mere survival in this difficult period? How can we develop educational programs which integrate organized knowledge and traditional insights with the useful skills and personal awareness needed in today's society? How can we develop instructional modes adapted to today's students and to the goals of new programs? How can educational personnel learn new skills, new roles, and new approaches to adapt to changed circumstances? (The Fund for the Improvement of Postsecondary Education Program Information and Application Procedures, 1976, pp. 10-12)

In response to these and other recommendations and actions at the national level, experiential education has become a movement across all of American higher education. For example, in Virginia higher education where tradition, not change, is worshipped, there is some form of experiential education at all four-year colleges and universities. Nationwide, the best estimate is that at any one time one student in every six is involved in some form of experiential education. This is a significant movement; 2,000,000 students is no small army.

These numbers provide a measure of respectability but there are other efforts to provide more substantive educational legitimacy for experiential education. In the late 1960's and early 1970's when many of us began to advocate experiential education, we did so from a general gut feeling that it was good. Like most faculty, we did not have the background knowledge from psychology, epistemology, or human development to back up what we practiced. This situation is no longer. A number of efforts are now underway developing a pedagogical basis for learning from experience. The most sophisticated effort is by the Cooperative Assessment of Experiential Learning Project (CAEL). This project, sponsored by the Educational Testing Service and the College Entrance Examination Board, has developed a number of position papers on what can be learned from experience and how to measure what has been learned. All of these efforts have now created a situation where faculty who do not want to participate in experiential education must make a case on other grounds than what is desired and legitimate in undergraduate education.

There may be national support for experiential education and there is something of a movement within higher education but it will not be easy for experiential education to become a general practice. The values of experiential education simply differ from the dominant values of the university. Edward Gross and Paul Grambsch have identified and rank ordered forty-seven different values of university faculty and administrators. Their results are hardly good news for proponents of experiential education. Forget the mission statements as described in university catalogues. They are not in agreement with what Gross and Grambsch say are the operational values. Consider the first ten values; viz,

Rank	Value
1	Protect academic freedom.
2	Increase or maintain prestige.
3	Maintain quality in important programs.
4	Ensure confidence of contributors.
5	Keep up to date.
6	Train students for research.
7	Carry on pure research.
8	Maintain quality in all programs.
9	Ensure favor of validating body.
10	Ensure efficiency of operation.

The values with which experiential education is concerned are simply not seen as important. For example, "preparing students for citizenship" is ranked 20th; "satisfying area needs," which may be equated with community service, is ranked 34th; "developing student's character" is ranked 38th; and "emphasizing undergraduate instruction" is ranked 44th (Gross and Grambsch, 1968, pp. 28-29).

This is probably not an original insight but it seems that goals do not operate singly but as goal sets, each set being composed of goals which mutually reinforce each other. A set composed of goals considered important in the organization would give a particular character to an organization. This would have to be the case if theses like those developed by Riesman in several of his studies of higher educational institutions have any validity, or if it is legitimate in any way to talk, as is common, about "institutional types," "distinctive college," "institutional environment."

If goals do operate as goal sets, innovation is not a significant goal in contemporary higher education. An analysis of the top ten goals listed above as perceived by college faculty and administrators suggests that the top ten goals comprise a goal set which might be called "protecting-our-place-by-continuing-to-do-what-we-do-well." This is very much a conservative orientation. Innovation in itself was not specified as a goal by Gross and Grambsch. It is unlikely that if specified it would have any significance against such a powerful orientation toward conservatism. In another major study of goals of American higher educational institutions, innovation was specifically identified. Of thirty-one specified goals, innovation ranked twenty-first in order of importance (Richman and Farmer, 1976).

If there are faculty who value teaching and student development, faculty participation in experiential education is still very much problematic. The reward system for academic professionals is not supportive of these two values. Higher educational institutions in this country have three functions--teaching, research, and service. This three-fold mission would certainly seem to support faculty initiative in experiential education. Unfortunately, rewards are distributed to academic professionals on their productivity in only one of these areas--research--specifically, publications resulting from that research. If you doubt this, consider the focus of this conference. What are we doing here? We are giving papers, and these papers will be mentioned in documentation for tenure, the single reward in higher education.

Securing tenure is a particular concern for those very faculty who are most likely to have an interest in experiential education. These are new faculty at colleges and universities. In being new they have not been socialized to traditional practices. They are still open to educational innovation. Moreover, they often come to the university from employment in non-academic settings. From this experience they are cognizant of community problems and the manpower needed to address these problems, manpower which students could easily provide. Unfortunately, these new faculty, open as they might be to non-traditional efforts, are the very ones most caught up in the securing-tenure game. The word to them which controls their life for the next four or five years is "publish or get out."

Teaching and concern for the educational needs of students are values which they will have to pursue at the expense of their own professional development and job security.

Faculty can easily become involved in experiential education programs; they do not have to wait for a change in institutional policy, for a president or academic dean to give their approval. In matters of educational policy faculty, individual and collectively acting through academic departments, exercise control. Academic freedom is the guarantee that the professor is free to teach in the manner he chooses. However, being free to do something and actually doing something is not the same thing. The gap between possibility and participation in experiential education is wide and not easily crossed. The professional values of the majority of faculty are contrary to the values of experiential education, and the reward system of higher education does not support participation in experiential education.

So far I have dealt a bad hand to those who believe in experiential education and hope its future in higher education is bright. You probably are convinced that not only have I come to do Caesar in but bury him as well. 'Tis not so. I simply do not want to send you out as sheep among wolves. Now that I have mixed three metaphors let us consider what is involved in implementing experiential education programs.

First, a word of caution. Experience itself is suspect in higher education. Forget your Thoreau, William James, Dewey. In higher education instruction is grounded in the assumptions of cognitive rationality. In higher education learning is identified as cognitive appropriation of symbols, either word or number symbols. This epistemology is pervasive in higher education, not only in the natural sciences where it makes sense but, also, in the social and behavioral sciences, even the arts, where its appropriateness is certainly questionable.

This caution should be a constant reminder that in higher education experience is not equated with learning. A student may spend hundreds of hours in a community service activity which requires expert application of the most technical knowledge but academic credit will not be granted for this experience. Academic credit is granted in recognition of what has been learned through the experience and not from the experience itself. Certifying learning will require some major changes from past practices in student volunteer programs. Four changes are obvious.

If learning, not service, is what is to be certified, learning objectives will have to be defined. Assessment of what has been learned cannot be made unless what is supposed to be learned has been identified. This is no easy matter. Work in the community can be the basis for achieving at least eight different educational goals. There may be eight to ten different learning objectives specified for any one goal. Moreover, if we take seriously the primary rationale of experiential education as a means for personalizing and individualizing education, different learning objectives will be needed for each student. All of this concern for identifying learning objectives is certainly a new requirement over the past practice of student volunteer programs. We hoped students learned from their experience but we were not unduly concerned with specifics.

A second requirement is that the tasks in which students are involved will have to be more challenging and appropriate to the students' academic interests. Curricular offerings in higher education are organized in academic departments. If students are to use community service as a basis for learning, the learning will have to be accredited through an academic department and it is likely that this department will have to be the department in which the student is majoring. What is involved in meeting these two requirements? A first condition is that the work experience must be such as to challenge a student of junior or senior academic status. Experiential education options are usually only available to students who have obtained a certain familiarity with the basic precepts of an academic discipline. Work experience is seen by faculty as a chance for applying or seeing concrete expressions of these precepts. A student is not thought to be knowledgeable of these precepts until at least the junior and, more likely, the senior year. This means that toy collecting, providing Christmas parties for orphans, and probably big brother and big sister programs are not acceptable work situations for learning through community service. These tasks can be done by students without postsecondary training.

A second condition is that the work task must be related to the student's academic field of study. The field of study must provide the technical basis for the doing of the service task. This means that community service in corrections cannot be the basis for accredited learning in the natural sciences, or work in health clinics accredited for learning in education or political science. I would certainly agree that the vision of faculty is narrow, that they make some very questionable assumptions about the value of their disciplines for informing action in the world of work, but these are the realities of academic life and we have to live with them.

A third change that will be required as we move from a student volunteer to an experiential education perspective is that the length of the work experience will probably have to be significantly increased. Academic credit is actually rewarded for doing time. The system is very much like that in the criminal justice system of reducing the length of a sentence for each period of good behavior. The formula in higher education is one credit for each fifteen hours of classroom instruction. A 1:15 ratio would not seem to be a problem; many students spend forty-five hours per semester in community service. That should be sufficient for three semester hours of credit. This is not the case. Remember that experience is suspect in higher education. There is no way to convince a real academic that a student can learn the same amount in an hour of community service, regardless of how intellectually demanding the task, as can be learned in the classroom lecture.

The typical response of higher education to the time-learning equation for experiential education is to treat learning through experience as one-third as efficient as lecture room learning. This means that if a student is to receive three semester hours of credit for what is learned experientially, approximately 135 hours, or nine hours per week for fifteen weeks, will be required. This is much more of an investment of time than has been required in typical student volunteer programs.

When an educational agenda is added to the service agenda the role of community agency personnel is changed significantly. The agency person who supervises the student's work becomes a support component for the student's learning. In effect, the agency person becomes an adjunct faculty. In this role he will be involved in defining work tasks which are appropriate to the student's abilities and academic interest, assist the on-campus faculty in identifying what can be learned in the service experience, direct the student's work, indicate where academic knowledge has relevance to the accomplishment of the work tasks, and evaluate, with the faculty, how well the tasks have been done and what has been learned. This is a long agenda of tasks, most of which are new for the agency representative. If they are done well not only will the student benefit educationally but the agency will benefit from a task well done. The important note is that the training of agency personnel in many of these tasks will have to be done by faculty who often have no experience at these tasks.

Experiential education is considered an innovation in American higher education. If you are an advocate of this innovation it is important that you consider what institutions are more likely to be open to innovation in their educational practices. There is little empirically derived data about institutional characteristics which support innovation. The one substantive work is by Lon Hefferlin. His study indicates that the following conditions are correlated with changes in educational policy in higher educational institutions:

1. Change is not correlated with type of institution (college or university) or with type of control (public, independent, religious).
2. Change is not correlated with traditional measures of institutional reputation (expenditure per student, proportion of doctorates among faculty, faculty salaries, or where the faculty received baccalaureate or advanced degrees.
3. Change is positively correlated with faculty turnover.
4. Change is positively correlated with institutional growth.
5. Change is positively correlated with turnover in departmental chairmanship.
6. Change is correlated with term of departmental chairman. There is less change when the chairmanship is an open term and more change when the chairman serves a term appointment.

7. Change is positively correlated with student participation in educational policy.

8. Change is negatively correlated with a feeling of powerlessness, defined as domination by administrators and/or senior faculty.

9. Change is positively correlated with an urban institutional setting.

10. Change is positively correlated with changes in society. For example, changes in women's colleges with the new attention to women's role in society and change in Catholic colleges after Vatican II.

11. Change is negatively correlated with a patriarchal president.

12. Change is correlated with the percentage of tenured faculty. The lesser the percentage of tenured faculty the greater the change.

13. Change is negatively correlated with a feeling of general satisfaction about the institution among faculty and administration. (Hefferlin, 1969)

As you consider these characteristics I remind you of the current state of higher education. It is popularly called a time for retrenchment. Our period of rapid growth is behind us. During the rapid growth period institutions had great autonomy in determining their own goals and clientele. This situation of prosperity meant essentially more of the same, a continuity of traditional practice at a greater level of activity. With retrenchment the concern is for providing new educational services and finding new clientele. If new means are needed in achieving these two objectives, higher educational institutions will be more open than ever to doing something different. In short, what I am saying is not to count out any institution as not being interested in experiential education.

Not only is it important that we identify institutions which are more open to innovation, it is also necessary to identify faculty who might be open to innovation. Educational policy is very much the prerogative of individual faculty. A faculty member at a traditionally oriented institution may be innovative; a faculty member at an innovative institution may be very traditional.

There are no broad-based empirical studies which identify that constellation of personal qualities which characterize faculty open to educational innovation. Rogers has developed a theoretical five-element typology of the innovative personality. Rogers' five types, the salient characteristics of each, and their percentage in the population are as follows:

Innovators--venturesome, willing to accept risks	2.5%
Early Adopters--respected, regarded by many others in the social system as models	13.5%
Early Majority--deliberate, willing to consider innovations only after peers have adopted them	68%
Late Majority--skeptical, overwhelming pressure from peers needed before adoption occurs	13.5%
Laggards--tradition-bound, oriented to the past	2.5%

(Quoted in Evans, 1968, pp. 20-21)

A more detailed description of the characteristics of each type can be interpolated from Rogers' descriptions of the two types, innovators and laggards, which are the end types on the continuum,

> Innovator
>
> Observers have noted that venturesomeness is almost an obsession with innovators. They are eager to try new ideas. This interest leads them out of a local circle of peers and into more cosmopolite social relationships. Communication patterns and friendships among a clique of innovators are common even though the geographical distance between the innovators may be great. They travel in a circle of venturesomeness, like circuit riders who spread new ideas as their gospel. Being an innovator has several prerequisites. They include control of substantial financial resources to absorb the loss of an unprofitable innovation and the ability to understand and apply complex technical knowledge. The major value of the innovator is venturesomeness. He must desire the hazardous, the rash, the daring and the risking. (Rogers, 1962, p. 169)
>
> Laggard
>
> Laggards are the last to adopt an innovation. They possess almost no opinion leadership. Laggards are the most localite of all adopter categories, and many are near-isolates. The point of reference for the laggard is the past. Decisions are usually made in terms of what has been done in previous generations. The individual interacts primarily with others who have traditional values. When laggards finally adopt an innovation, it may already be superseded by another more recent idea which the innovators are using. Laggards tend to be frankly suspicious of innovations, innovators and change agents. Their advanced age and tradition direction slows the adoption process to a crawl. Adoption lags far behind awareness of the idea. Alienation from a too-fast-moving world is apparent in much of the laggard's outlook. While most individuals in a social system are looking for the road to change ahead, the laggard has his attention fixed on the rear-view mirror. (Rogers, 1962, p.171)

SUMMARY STATEMENT

It has been the thesis of this paper that the future of student volunteerism is with a new movement in higher education known as experiential education which may be defined broadly as learning by doing. Experiential education is a significant movement in higher education supported by national policy groups, Federal funding initiatives, and student interest. It is unlikely that experiential education will become a majority movement unless there are major changes in the values of academic professionals who continue in their allegiance to cognitive rationality and of institutions which strongly favor a conservative instead of an innovative orientation to the greater society.

There is good reason in these days of retrenchment in higher education that these values are changing and that experiential education will become an accepted curricular option for students. Accordingly, it is important to change agents to know those characteristics of faculty and institutions which indicate an openness to innovation. Some characteristics of both were described in this paper.

Experiential education and student volunteerism have different roots and objectives. Experiential education focuses on learning, volunteerism focuses on service. If student volunteerism is to make it under the banner of experiential education, major changes will be required in how we have done student volunteerism in the past. Four major changes were identified.

Finally, an underlying theme of this paper has been that innovation in undergraduate curriculum is very difficult to affect. As one who has worked for the last seven years as an advocate of such change, I can assure you that the task is not easy. It is worth the effort. Along the way frustration and uncertainty will be constant companions. This is an occupational hazard for innovators. When frustration and uncertainty threaten to become depressive there is comfort in these lines of T. S. Eliot,

> Each venture
> Is a new beginning, a raid on the inarticulate
> With shabby equipment always deteriorating
> In the general mess of imprecision of feeling.

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CURRICULUM INNOVATION: VOLUNTEERING IN THE JUVENILE JUSTICE SYSTEM

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For the fourth consecutive semester, the sociology department of Old Dominion University in Norfolk, Virginia, is offering a three semester-hour course entitled "Volunteering in the Juvenile Justice System." Recent trends in sociology, in higher education, and in the volunteerism movement make clear that this course speaks to the needs of our time. These trends, as well as the mechanics and content of the course, and its effects on participants and the sponsoring volunteer agency will be explored in this paper.

The scientific community is beginning to emphasize the importance of values in our technological society. "The interplay of science and technology on the one hand, and social ethics on the other, is much discussed today" [Sieghart, 1973, 7]. Since World War II, when science was systematically harnessed for its potential in making weapons, there has been an increasing tendency to include scientists in social accountability for their research. Even in the recent years of rapid technological growth, which have seen the reality of severe and "permanent ecological damage, considerations of the special responsibility of those individuals with advanced knowledge have multiplied" [Steinfels, 1973, 3]. Organizations have emerged which specialize in the exploration of social and ethical responsibility. The Hastings Institute of Society, Ethics, and the Life Sciences, which was founded to fill the need for sustained, professional investigation of the ethical impact of the biological revolution, is one of the more prominent such organizations. Specific concerns include: psychosurgery, human experimentation, definition of death, termination of treatment for dying patients, allocation of limited resources among the dying, DNA research, use of drugs to control human behavior, genetic disease screening, among others.

The social sciences, which have traditionally emphasized ethical neutrality, are now participating in the movement toward the increasing ethical awareness found in the natural sciences. The humanistic school of sociology maintains that the concern for humankind is more important than the pursuit of science for science's sake. One leading humanistic sociologist advances the basic tenet that:

> . . . every person has potential worth and should be given the opportunity to develop to the greatest extent possible consistent with the development of others. . . This philosophy can be implemented only in a society where equalitarianism and justice are basic values and . . . are meaningfully supported. A humanistic sociology, therefore, is one that helps a society to develop these characteristics [Hoult, 1974, 4-5].

The pursuit of activities which benefit the community are, in this context, viewed as worthwhile and appropriate for sociologists.

While concern for values is increasing in the scientific community, academic institutions are experiencing a trend which may increase receptiveness to value concerns. The so-called "crisis in higher education" has seen a reduction in the proportion of college-aged people in our society. Institutions of higher learning are experiencing cut-backs in funding accompanied by a basic questioning of the value of higher education. In this atmosphere, many colleges and universities are developing innovative courses which combine a traditional conceptual framework with value concerns relevant to the needs and interests of students. Such courses may be particularly attractive to non-traditional students, thereby providing more contact with the surrounding community. Old Dominion University, for example, has defined its mission as an urban university which must be responsive to the needs of the larger community of which it is a part. As such, the University utilizes the community as its laboratory, while participating in problem-solving efforts. Thus, institutional goals are fully compatible with the humanistic trend in sociology, with its orientation toward efforts which benefit society.

The increased student demand for relevance in academic course work is fostered, undoubtedly, by the ever-tightening job market. Courses which provide exposure to job possibilities and encourage participation in community agencies are often viewed by students as not only relevant to their own lives, but perhaps helpful in future job-hunting, as well.

Many teachers in colleges and universities encourage students to become involved in community activities as an integral part of their learning experience. For example, credit practicum courses are increasingly utilized. Sociology students are given the opportunity to view the discipline as more than just an accumulation of knowledge which must be articulated in proper form for the purpose of testing. Rather, sociology becomes a vehicle for increased awareness of one's social environment. Courses which provide community involvement, promote responsible involved citizenship and intelligent issue-oriented voting.

Coinciding with academia's increasing community involvement is the rapid growth of the volunteer movement. The movement has been precipitated in part by cut-backs in funding and the resultant lack of personnel in community agencies, and has been fueled by the increasing amounts of leisure time found in many segments of our society. In virtually every area of social concern, volunteerism is growing; in the area of courts and corrections, however, the growth is dramatic. In 1965, two volunteer programs existed in the area of courts and corrections in the United States, involving a total of 600 volunteers. By 1975 over 2,500 such programs were in existence, involving the services of more than one-third of a million volunteers [Leenhouts, 1975].

In Norfolk a major volunteer agency is the Friends of the Norfolk Juvenile Court, Inc.,[1] currently the largest court volunteer organization in the state. Incorporated on March 24, 1970, the first year witnessed the involvement of 27 volunteers and 2,931 hours of training and work. 1976, by contrast, saw 126 volunteers involved in 8,307 hours of training and work. Although initial efforts of the Friends were reluctantly accepted, today the vital contributions of the Friends to the Juvenile and Domestic Relations Court are continually recognized. As a past presiding judge has observed:

> The third powerful factor affecting our Court: [is] the Friends of the Norfolk Juvenile Court. . . Of all expressions of concern for the Court's problems, the most gracious and gratuitous has been the formation of the Friends. Words cannot express the admiration and gratitude which the Court entertains for them. This independent organization, which exists solely for reinforcing the Court in accomplishment of its mission, exemplifies the tremendous surge of public support for the citadel of confrontation with juvenile crime and delinquency constituted by the Court and its associated services; and is a marshalling ground for the concern and prowess of the public in the conflict. Invested with the sustained and tremendous labors of the Friends, its distinguished membership, its implacable fortitude and its gracious and indomitable spirit, the implementation of the mission of the Court and its associated services has been vastly enhanced [Martin, 1975, 6].

Obviously, the effectiveness of volunteers is somewhat dependent upon the amount and quality of training received. While the Friends provide a limited amount of training, they felt the need to expand it. Further, since a major goal of the Friends involves efforts to educate the community to the needs of the juvenile court, they sought a way to utilize the extensive resources of one of the local universities. Expanded training at the university level, then, could also help meet the goal of community education. The Friends approached Old Dominion University with the proposal that a credit course be offered to meet these needs; the course was designed by a member of the sociology department.[2]

Unique in concept and presentation, the course surveys the juvenile justice system, focusing upon areas particularly beneficial to students who may wish to pursue careers in juvenile justice, either as volunteers or as professionals. The content was designed from the perspective of what volunteers should know, fitting the needs of the

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[1] For the sake of brevity, the Friends of the Norfolk Juvenile Court, Inc. hereinafter will be referred to as the Friends.

[2] Joy Reed, Executive Director of the Volunteer Office of the Friends, approached the Sociology Department and the School of Continuing Studies at Old Dominion University. The course was designed by Laurie Newman Di Padova, in consultation with Mrs. Reed.

volunteer program, while maintaining respectability as part of the sociology curriculum. Essential to its success is the course's solid sociological framework. Not only does the course illustrate worthwhile use of academic knowledge, it also demonstrates the relevance of sociology to practical life situations. For example, one perspective presented in the course is symbolic interaction. After exploring ways in which some of the concepts, including "looking-glass self" and "self-fulfilling prophecy," may affect students in their own lives at various times, the relationship of these concepts to delinquency, especially in the form of the labeling theory, is discussed. Conflict theory, differential association, and other deviance theories are considered in similar fashion.

Once the conceptual framework is established, an overview of the criminal justice system is presented. The focus then shifts to juveniles, and class members examine basic concepts of developmental psychology, as well as the role of the adolescent in society. Next, attention is directed to the juvenile justice system, the legal status of the child within that system, and the responsibility of the community in providing alternatives to the system.

After a solid structure and conceptual base has been laid, the emphasis of the course shifts to the practical skills useful in relating to juveniles and their families. Sessions dealing with self-awareness, values-clarification, communication skills, and counseling techniques are presented. The course usually concludes with a group discussion among the students, a panel of volunteers and their juvenile "clients," and the Coordinator of Volunteers for the Friends discussing the volunteer in the court setting.[3]

The course makes use of the expertise of specialists in a number of areas which it covers. Locating and scheduling speakers, providing media presentations, and planning field trips are essential tasks of the course instructor. At the same time, the instructor insures course continuity through organization and the vital comments at the beginning and end of each class period, providing transistion from one speaker or field experience to another, and to the overall purposes of the course.

The numerous state and local experts who address the class are invaluable to the success of the course. Juvenile court judges, court administrators, probation officers, and training officers from the Regional Office of the State Department of Corrections, Division of Youth Services, are among the dedicated professionals who address the class. The Director of the Criminal Justice Program at Old Dominion University, the juvenile delinquency specialist from the University's sociology department, and the Director of Services from Virginia Wesleyan College regularly participate. Other guest speakers have included a staff attorney from the American Civil Liberties Union Children's Rights Project, a juvenile public defender, the Director of Attention Homes, Inc., in Charlottesville, Virginia, as well as experienced volunteers and the youth probationers with whom they work.[4]

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[3] See Appendix A for a copy of the current syllabus.

To illustrate basic concepts, extensive use is made of the media. Films[5] and video-tapes, many of which are produced by the Volunteers in Probation Division of the National Council on Crime and Delinquency, add significantly to the course. This past fall, Family Service/Travelers' Aid of Norfolk and the Norfolk Theatre Center presented a play from their "Plays for Living" series entitled "#291048367," which dramatized the issues of plea bargaining and the inequities within the criminal justice system. Student response to each media presentation is collected by having them complete an evaluation form (see Appendix B).

Another important aspect of the course are the field trips to local facilities. A number of such trips are scheduled and students may choose any seven. For example, this semester the students could choose from 19 scheduled trips to 16 different facilities, as well as individual visits to approved, non-scheduled places. Shortly after each visit, students are required to complete a form describing and evaluating the facility (see Appendix B). Field trip opportunities include visits to local group home facilities, detention homes, half-way houses, juvenile courts, police youth bureaus, city jails, probation field units, as well as to state and regional facilities. The Friends are of great assistance in this aspect of the course. They schedule both group and individual field visits for the students, help provide transportation, and write follow-up letters of appreciation to people at the facilities visited. Students frequently cite field trips as one of the most valuable aspects of the course.

At the present time, the course meets for two hours one night a week, with the field trips scheduled at other times. This summer the class will meet two hours each day for four weeks and the field trips will be held during the regularly scheduled meeting time. The interests of the students are taken into consideration when scheduling the class and it is important to remain flexible to this demand. Many of the students at Old Dominion maintain full- or part-time jobs, and/or have families, and thus find it difficult to attend the required number of field trips. With these individuals in mind, the course, which normally is offered for three credits, is also offered for two credits to anyone who chooses not to participate in the field trips.

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[4] Using funds provided by the Friends, guest speakers are occasionally offered an honorarium in addition to their travel expenses. The honoraria are modest and serve as a token of appreciation. When no funds are available, these same individuals usually still are willing to participate.

[5] Films used include "Children in Trouble" produced by the John Howard Association and based on the book by the same title; "Eye of the Storm," the ABC film illustrating the effects of labeling by portraying the third-grade class in Iowa in which children were divided into "blue-eyed" and "brown-eyed" categories and discriminated against accordingly; "Bill of Rights," available through the Justice Department, exploring differences in legal treatment of adults and juveniles; and "Cipher in the Snow," a film of the National Education Association's 1964 award winning story by Jean Mizer portraying a true account of the tragic effects of labeling on a child (available through Brigham Young University).

At the end of each semester, students complete an extensive course evaluation (see Appendix D). The results of this data are used in planning course content for the succeeding semester. While it is necessary to remain flexible with regard to content, limits are set on this flexibility by the goals and expectations of the Friends, the sociology department, the instructor, and the needs and interests of the students.

We find that most of the people taking the course are full-time students, rather than volunteers or community people interested in volunteering. In fact there has been little effort to recruit students from the community, as the full-time students tend to fill the class during registration. One of the reasons for the attractiveness of the course to the traditional student is that it deals with the academic discipline of sociology in a relevant fashion by relating it to a specific social need. Criminal justice majors report that the course provides an excellent background in their efforts to understand the criminal justice system, particularly as it relates to juveniles.

Effects of the course on participants and on the Friends are difficult to measure. Many students become involved volunteering in other places, and at later times, making follow-up difficult. We do know that interest in the course has been considerable, with the enrollment steadily increasing from 21 students registered the first semester offered, to 41 students registered during the current semester.

No one expects that every student will become a volunteer, although many have. Students who subsequently do not become volunteers are, nevertheless, better informed concerning the courts and their needs. These students undoubtedly assist the courts informally simply by disseminating information to others who may be interested in volunteering. For example, parents of several students are now active volunteers. In some cases, student contact with civic and business groups provides assistance to the Friends. In this connection, a local P.T.A. representative, after having taken the course, scheduled a number of speaking engagements for the Friends' Volunteer Coordinator at local chapters of the P.T.A. These engagements resulted in the recruitment of a number of high quality volunteers.

There are numerous other examples of how the students from the class have been directly responsible for volunteer efforts in the local courts. Although empirical analysis is difficult, it appears that exposure to a course of this nature fosters not only awareness of, but sensitivity to, the problems of the juvenile justice system. For example, an attempt to locate a group home in the neighborhood of a former student would likely meet with less neighborhood resistance than otherwise would be the case.

In the final analysis the purposes of the course are four-fold. The course attempts to meet the relevant needs of our two sponsoring organizations, Old Dominion University and the Friends of the Norfolk Juvenile Court, as well as those of the student participants and the surrounding community. Although it is difficult to determine empirically whether all of these needs are being met, continual reassessment suggests that we are approaching their fulfillment.

REFERENCES

Hoult, Thomas Ford. Sociology For A New Day. New York: Random House, 1974.

Leenhouts, Keith (Executive Director, Volunteers In Probation of the National Council on Crime and Delinquency). Address, Volunteering in the Juvenile Justice System class, Old Dominion University, 18 September 1975.

Martin, James G., IV. "The Impact of Volunteers Upon the Juvenile Justice System, As Exemplified by the Friends of the Norfolk Juvenile Court." Unpublished paper presented to Volunteering in the Juvenile Justice System class, Old Dominion University, 6 November 1975.

Sieghart, et. al. "The Social Obligations of the Scientist." Hastings Center Studies, I, no. 2 (1973), 7-16.

Steinfels, Peter. "Values, Expertise and Responsibility in the Life Sciences." Hastings Center Studies, I, no. 2 (1973), 3-6.

APPENDIX A

SYLLABUS
VOLUNTEERING IN THE JUVENILE JUSTICE SYSTEM

Textbooks:

Richette, Lisa Aversa: The Throwaway Children, Dell Books, 1969.
Sanders, William B.: Juvenile Delinquency, Praeger Publishers, 1976.
Glasser, William: Reality Therapy, Harper and Row, 1965.
Fox, Vernon: "A Handbook for Volunteers in Juvenile Court," National Council of Juvenile Court Judges, University of Nevada, 1973.

Course Outline and Reading Assignments:

Date	Class Topic	Assignments
1/20	Coordination and Orientation.	
1/27	Juvenile Corrections. Film "Children in Trouble." Guests: Susie Sasser and Judy Spong, former counselors at Bon Air Learning Center. Film: "Eye of the Storm."	Richette, pp. 1-278
2/3	An Overview of the Criminal Justice System. Guest: Dr. Leonard Dobrin, Director, Criminal Justice Program, Old Dominion University. Juvenile Legislation in Virginia. Guest: Mrs. Betty Adams, Resource Officer, Norfolk Juvenile Court.	Sanders, ch. 1,7,9
2/10	Problems Juveniles Face. Guest: Dr. Garland White, Sociology Department, ODU. Film: "Cipher in the Snow."	Sanders, ch. 2,3
2/17	Values Clarification. Guest: Mr. Fred Mason, Trainer, Regional Office--Division of Youth Services.	Sanders, ch. 4,5
2/24	Communication Skills. Guests: Laurie Di Padova, Board of the Friends of the Norfolk Juvenile Court and Mrs. Minor Thomas, Volunteer Coordinator of the Friends of the Norfolk Juvenile Court.	Sanders, ch. 6,7
3/3	A Child Goes Through the System. Guest: Ms. Chris Boyce, Director of Court Services Norfolk Juvenile Court.	Sanders, 8
3/10	SPRING VACATION (no class)	

Date	Class Topic	Assignments
3/17	Prevention and Diversion. Guest: Pam Kelley, Prevention Coordinator, Regional Office--Division of Youth Services. ***TAKE HOME MID-TERM GIVEN OUT***	Richette, finish
3/24	The Juvenile Justice System in Virginia and Tidewater. Guest: Judge Lester Moore, Norfolk Juvenile Court. ***(7:00 PM TAKE HOME EXAMS DUE)***	Glasser, begin
3/31	Children and the Law. Guest: Ms. Virginia Cochran, Public Defender for Juveniles, Virginia Beach.	Glasser, con't
4/7	Counseling Techniques. Guest: Mrs. Dora Dobrin, Director, Human Services, Virginia Wesleyan College, Norfolk.	Glasser, finish
4/14	Alternatives to the System. Guest: Gary Duncan, Director, Community Attention Home, Inc., Charlottesville.	Fox, half
4/21	The Volunteer in the Court Setting. Guests: Mrs. Minor Thomas, Coordinator of Volunteers of the Friends of the Norfolk Juvenile Court and Mrs. Annie Lou Gurtin, Volunteer Coordinator, Virginia Beach Juvenile Court. Additional Guests: Volunteers and Clients - TBA.	Fox, finish
4/28	FINAL EXAMINATION. On entire course.	

Grading and Policies:

1. Semester grades will be calculated from the mid-term test and from the final exam. A total of 300 points is possible for the course: mid-term = 100 points and the final exam = 200 points.

2. Students taking the course for 3 hours credit should turn in their visit forms during the class meeting following their visit to the facility.

3. Students taking the course for 3 credits must choose 7 units of field trips. This includes one required visit to the juvenile court. With the exception of the Richmond trip, these visits are planned for 1 hour and count 1 unit. The Richmond trip counts 3 units.

4. For the following trips meet in the Arts and Letters parking lot. The specific time to meet will be stated in class prior to the trip.

FIELD TRIPS

Date	Time	Place	Address
2/15	2 pm	Juvenile Crisis Center	2212 Indian River Rd., Norfolk
3/1	2 pm	Norfolk Detention Home	Welfare Center, Norfolk
3/2	1 pm	Regional Girl's Home	2000 Virginia Beach Blvd., Va. Beach
3/15	1 pm	Norfolk Jail	811 E. City Hall Ave., Norfolk
3/17	2 pm	Chesapeake Regional Boy's Home	RD #10, former Nike site
3/22	1 pm	Norfolk City Jail	811 E. City Hall Ave., Norfolk
3/23	2 pm	Stanhope House	2115 Stanhope Ave., Norfolk
3/29	7 am all day	Richmond Trip lunch 57¢	Diagnostic Center, Bon Air, Pinecrest
3/30	2 pm	Portsmouth Boy's Group Home	3515 Race St., Portsmouth
3/31	1 pm	Pendleton Project	1000 S. Birdneck Rd., Va. Beach
4/5	1 pm	Crisis Home, Va. Beach	20th and Artic
4/6	1 pm	Tidewater Detention Home	Civic Center, Chesapeake
4/13	2 pm	Lake House - Girl's Group Home	1371 Kempsville Rd., Norfolk
4/14	2 pm	Hampton House-Reg. Half-way House	1610 Hampton Blvd., Norfolk
4/18	2 pm	Regional Girl's Home	2000 Virginia Beach Blvd., Va. Beach
4/20	1 pm	Tidewater Detention Home	Civic Center, Chesapeake

ADDITIONAL TRIPS TO BE ARRANGED ON AN INDIVIDUAL BASIS

1. COURT VISIT. (Required) Monday through Friday, 9:45 to noon (approximately). Call Mrs. Thomas in the Volunteer Office (622-3668, ex. 288) to confirm a time. Have to be there at 9:45 but can leave between cases.

2. FIELD UNIT VISIT. Monday through Friday, afternoon and evening. Call Mrs. Thomas to confirm a time.

3. NIGHT INTAKE AT YOUTH BUREAU. Any day (including Saturday and Sunday) between 5 and 9 pm. Indicate at class meeting a week prior to date you wish so that name of intake probation officer on duty may be given to you to contact for best time to come. (441-2301 after 5 pm). Dates excluded from this program are 2/28 - 3/3 and 3/11-12. No more than two people at one time.

4. Other facilities dealing with juveniles - make own arrangements but must have prior approval from Ms. Coyle.

Course Coordinator: Betty Wade Coyle
Office: A&L 925 Hours: MWF 10-12
Phone: 489-6391 (office)
623-3000 (home)

APPENDIX B

QUESTIONS ASKED ON MEDIA EVALUATION

1. Name of student and date of evaluation
2. What was the point of the tape/film?
3. Would you recommend that this tape/film be used again? Why or why not?
4. On a scale of 1(poor) to 5(excellent), how would you rate this tape/film?
5. Please make any further comments in order to clarify your evaluation.

QUESTIONS ASKED ON FIELD VISIT REPORT

1. Name of student and date and time of visit.
2. Name of facility.
3. Description of premises.
4. What personnel associated with the facility did you encounter during the visit?
5. Do you think that the facility is fulfilling its purpose? Why or why not?
6. How did the visit enhance your understanding of the juvenile justice system? Limit your response to no more than three specifics.
7. Please make any further comments in order to clarify your report.

APPENDIX C

SAMPLE TEST
VOLUNTEERING IN THE JUVENILE JUSTICE SYSTEM

TRUE-FALSE QUESTIONS. Answer the following questions on the answer sheet provided. (2 points each).

1. We confidently can rely on crime statistics to tell us if crime is increasing or decreasing.

2. Values-clarification refers to a training procedure whereby we discover which values are right and which values are wrong.

3. Glasser maintains that, if at all possible, we must discover the reasons for our emotions and behavior before we can hope to change.

4. Unlike traditional therapists, Glasser recognizes the necessity of the therapist's maintaining an attitude of non-involvement with the client.

5. "Eye of the Storm" showed children behaving in conformity to what was being expected of them at the time.

6. According to Sanders, a juvenile does not have to commit delinquent acts in order to be considered a delinquent.

7. The social deprivation theory relates delinquency to a juvenile's being deprived of socially acceptable, law-abiding, non-delinquent friends and having, instead, to associate with socially non-law-abiding peers.

8. A juvenile who has been labeled as a delinquent is less likely to commit delinquent acts than the juvenile who has not been so labeled because the labeled delinquent knows better - he fears being locked up again.

9. Juvenile status offenders end up in a detention setting for longer periods of time than do juveniles who have committed criminal offenses.

10. The main distinction between delinquent youth and non-delinquent youth is that the former engage in delinquent activities while the latter does not.

11. There are no co-educational juvenile facilities in the city of Norfolk.

12. According to Dora Dobrin, reality therapy as described by Glasser is the most effective treatment modality now being used.

13. Penitentiaries were invented by the communists.

14. In Virginia, there is absolutely nothing the courts can do if a child's parent refuses to participate in family counseling.

15. There are currently no places in Virginia where it is legal for a single person to be a foster parent.

16. Adventure Bound is the name of a local Virginia Beach program aimed at correcting behavioral problems of children between the ages of 6 and 12.

17. Judges are the only people in the legal system that have the power of discretion when dealing with juveniles.

18. Starting January 1, 1978 status offenders in Virginia may no longer be detained in the same secure facilities as juvenile criminal offenders.

19. Proponents of reality therapy argue that it is very important to diagnose types of mental illness before actual therapy begins.

20. Intake officers in Virginia now have the option of refusing to file a petition against a juvenile if they feel it is unjustified.

DISCUSSION QUESTIONS. Answer two of the following. (20 points each).

A. It has been proposed that another state institution for juveniles be constructed at a minimum cost of 20 million dollars. Supporters of this proposal cite the rising rate of juvenile delinquency as rationale for this investment. Present a thorough, detailed and well-organized argument for or against the proposed new institution.

B. Consider the relationship of juvenile delinquency to class, status, and power and discuss the influence of these three factors on the labeling and treatment of children by the juvenile justice system.

C. You are given a one hour appointment with a new, untrained volunteer in the juvenile court. In that time you are to provide this person with as much meaningful information and training as possible to prepare him/her for an initial "one-to-one" meeting with a client. List 15 specific items or concepts which you think would be of MOST benefit to the new volunteer. Explain why you consider these items/concepts to be important.

In addition answer the following question. (20 points)

D. You are being asked to design a course to introduce students and members of the community to volunteering in the juvenile justice system. This course is to be given at another local college. Which of the guest speakers that you heard this semester would you try to get for your course. List the three you liked best and cite two new insights you gained from each of the three. Which speakers would you omit and why? What new things would you add to your course? Be specific.

APPENDIX D

COURSE EVALUATION
VOLUNTEERING IN THE JUVENILE JUSTICE SYSTEM

Instructions: Please respond to the following as carefully, honestly, and completely as possible. Your responses will not be examined by the instructor until your semester grades are turned in to the Registrar's Office. However, your opinions will be considered very carefully in planning next semester's course. Answer the following items on the reverse side of this sheet.

1. Briefly state the (a) MOST valuable aspect of this course for you, and (b) the LEAST valuable aspect of this course for you.

2. If you were instructing this course, what changes would you make?

3. If you were instructing this course, what aspects of it would you be sure NOT to change?

4. Please evaluate the items listed according to the following code. Darken the appropriate space on the answer sheet provided.

Code: A = Excellent. Should be used again.
B = Good, but needs to be related to the course by additional comments from the course instructor.
C = OK if you cannot find any replacement.
D = Definitely omit for next time.
E = Cannot comment, as I was absent that night.

Course Content:

1. Film: "Children in Trouble."

2. Guests: Susie Sasser and Judy Spong, former counselors at Bon Air State Learning Center.

3. Awareness games (1st class), Mrs. Coyle.

4. Guest: Dr. Leonard Dobrin - "An Overview of the Criminal Justice System."

5. Guest: Betty Adams - "Juvenile Legislation in Virginia."

6. Guest: Dr. Garland White - "Problems Juveniles Face."

7. Film: "Cipher in the Snow."

8. Guests: Laurie Di Padova, Minor Thomas, and Cathy Dickinson - "Communication Skills."

9. Guest: Chris Boyce - "A Child Goes Through the System."

10. Guest: A Delinquent Juvenile Girl (better known as your instructor).

11. Guest: Pam Kelley - "Prevention and Diversion."

12. Guest: Fred Mason - "Values Clarification."

13. Guest: Virginia Cochran - "Children and the Law."

14. Guest: Dora Dobrin - "Counseling Techniques."

15. Film: "Eye of the Storm"

16. Guest: Gary Duncan - "Alternatives to the System."

17. Guests: Volunteer Coordinators - Minor Thomas and Annie Guertin.

18. Guest: Judge Lester Moore, Jr.

19. Instructor: Mrs. Coyle - overall comments and instruction.

Books:

20. Richette, The Throwaway Children.

21. Sanders, Juvenile Delinquency.

22. Glasser, Reality Therapy.

23. Fox, "Handbook for Volunteers in Juvenile Court."

Field Trips: (use "E" if you did not go to that trip)

24. Juvenile Crisis Center - Norfolk.

25. Norfolk Detention Home

26. Regional Girl's Home.

27. Norfolk Jail.

28. Chesapeake Regional Boy's Home.

29. Stanhope House.

30. Richmond Trip.

31. Portsmouth Boy's Group Home.

32. Pendleton Project.

33. Crisis Home - Virginia Beach.

34. Tidewater Detention Home.

35. Lake House.

36. Hampton House.

37. Court Visit.

38. Intake Visit.

39. Probation Field Unit.

THE IMPACT OF VOLUNTEERISM IN THE PEACE CORPS ON CAREER DEVELOPMENT AND SKILL TRANSFERABILITY

Mary DeCarlo, Office of Policy and Planning, ACTION Agency

During the first few years after the formation of the Peace Corps a plethora of studies was conducted to determine why people joined the Peace Corps. Almost all these studies agree that the idealism of youth in the 1960's, spurred by President Kennedy's exhortation to "Ask not what your country can do for you, but what you can do for your country," was the prime motivating force.

In a study published in 1964, an analysis was made of the ratings given by 1568 volunteers on the reasons for joining the Peace Corps as reported in the Close of Service Questionnaire. The most important reasons were to gain intercultural experience, to work with people, and a belief in the Peace Corps (Marvel, 1964). A 1963 study found that, of 2612 Peace Corps Volunteers (PCVs) asked, "What do you hope to accomplish by joining the Peace Corps?," almost all wanted to do something for the Peace Corps such as helping others by applying their skills overseas. The responses to this question were divided into three classifications: those who desired to give something to the Peace Corps, those who were primarily concerned with what the Peace Corps could give them, and substantiating statements (see Table 1).

These results show that 93% desired to give something to the cause of world peace while 65% were concerned with personal benefits from their Peace Corps experience. (There is obviously an overlap in responses, but even if one takes that into account, the majority still desired to "give".) Within the "Getting" category, the practical advantage mentioned most frequently was learning or gaining general experience which 17% hoped to derive from their service. 12% expressed the more specific desire to further a career vocation.

ENHANCEMENT OF CAREER POTENTIAL

In the early 1960's while the majority of those who volunteered in the Peace Corps did so for idealistic purposes, they later found that their overseas service had also strengthened their marketable skills and profoundly affected their career choices. A 1966 study found that 34% of over 2000 volunteers had no career goal when they began their 2 years of service. After service, only 12% were still uncertain (Calvert, 1966). Longworth agreed: "Few Volunteers had made career commitments before joining the Peace Corps. For those who had, service overseas was an enlightening experience, an expansion of horizons that was likely to stimulate new professional interests" (Longworth, 1971). The Calvert study compared the goals of Peace Corps Volunteers before and after service (see Table 2). These data seem to illustrate that those goals which were most enhanced during the terms of service were social service and the Government. The rest stayed roughly constant.

In 1971 a study on the returned volunteer reported that 2 out of 3 Returned Peace Corps Volunteers (RPCVs) who decided to pursue further education indicated "their educational interests and career plans were directly influenced by Peace Corps service. The direction of influcence tended to favor the fields of education, economics, linguistics, international relations, agriculture, and the social sciences. Nearly a third of the students expressed the intention of using their skills overseas, usually in the area or country of their Peace Corps service" (Longworth, 1971, p. 15).

Finally, in October, 1969, the Transcentury Corporation conducted a study of RPCVs and found the results reported in Table 3 concerning the applicability of Peace Corps service to the present job of the RPCV. 67.2% felt that their Peace Corps experience enhanced their career potential or in some way related to their present job, compared to 28.7% who thought their service had little or no relevance.

THE SITUATION IN THE 1970s

In some respects the situation today is quite different than it was in the 1960s, especially with respect to reasons for joining the Peace Corps and the generalist focus of Peace Corps recruitment being replaced with a more specialist focus. "Today, individual goals have become more modest and few volunteers set off any more believing their efforts will change the world" (Springfield Daily News, December, 1976).

Results of a June, 1976, questionnaire show the change from "Giving" to "Getting" motivations. The data in Table 4 were obtained in answer to the question: "What was your primary reason for joining the Peace Corps? What was your secondary reason?" These data illustrate a change in motives for joining the Peace Corps. No longer are volunteers as idealistic about their ability to change the world. While the majority still state this as their primary reason for joining the Peace Corps, a significant proportion of others place more importance on personal growth, desire to see other cultures, and travel.

Many reasons have been advanced for this change, the most popular being the condition of the US economy and subsequent employment prospects. Don Stewart, a Los Angeles-based ACTION spokesman, told the Rocky Mountain News that the large number of recent applications "is due to two factors: the economic recession and the bleak unemployment picture. Many young people with little or no chance of obtaining a job under the present economic conditions are turning to the Peace Corps instead."[1] A seemingly typical case is that of Wilson Hill, Jr., who, upon graduation from North Carolina State in 1974, could not decide what to do with his economics degree. He decided "to spend the next two years in the Peace Corps traveling and helping other people while he decided what kind of work he would like to do. Hill says he decided to join the Peace Corps because 'It was intriguing to think about living in another country. I didn't quite know what to do with my economics degree'".[2]

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[1] Richard Trubo, "Peace Corps Enjoys Postwar Revival, Rocky Mountain News, Denver, Colorado, December 8, 1976.

A more cynical view of the reasons some people join the Peace Corps was stated by Special Services officer Craig Storti: due to a deteriorating employment situation in the States,

> Many volunteers now see the Peace Corps as a means of getting work experience that will make them competitive on the job market when they return. (This was not the case 5 years ago; then, volunteers did not expect difficulty getting jobs when they completed their service and certainly did not see Peace Corps as a means to that end.) These new volunteers are not necessarily interested in the goals of the organization; they have committed themselves to a particular job which, coincidentally, happens to be in the Peace Corps.[3]

Storti grants this is a rather severe appraisal and applies only to a minority of Peace Corps volunteers.

The hypothesis that the Peace Corps experience provides the Volunteer with valuable career enhancement is as true today as it was in the '60s. Says Jeff Pesola, PCV in Brazil, "I'm growing personally, doing something different and I don't feel the pressure at work. But I'm also growing professionally. I have more responsibilities here than I would at home."[4]

For others, the Peace Corps has helped develop future career plans. Richard Figoni, PCV in El Salvador, got so involved in developing a seedless watermelon and thereby teaching plant genetics to local farmers that he concluded, "I don't want to teach biology any more. I want to work with plant improvement programs of developing countries."[5]

Philip Lopes calls the two years he spent as a PCV in Colombia "the turning point of my life. From that experience I made decisions about what I want to do with the rest of my life." The decisions included a career in human services and Lopes' subsequent appointment as the director of the Peace Corps in Ecuador.[6]

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[2] Kathy Kepley, "He's Back After 2 Years in Africa: Chair Citian Serves with Peace Corps," Times, Thomasville, NC, December 10, 1976.

[3] Craig Storti, "Is Altruism Losing Ground in the Peace Corps?", Interaction, Volume 5, No. 4, January, 1977, p. 3.

[4] "Melrose Park Accountant Aids Peace Corps Effort in Brazil," Star-Sentinel, Melrose Park, Illinois, December 15, 1976, p. 6.

[5] Mildred Hamilton, "Seedless Watermelons Are the Fruits of Figoni's Labors," San Francisco Examiner, January 12, 1977.

[6] "Lopes New Director of Peace Corps in Ecuador," California Star, Dos Palos, December 9, 1976.

THE PCV PARTICIPATES IN BUILDING A NATIONAL CULTURE

Nation-building has been defined as the attempt to overcome cultural, language, skill and economic differences between various population groups (Pinkay, 1965). Peace Corps objectives were designed to be accomplished by just such a program of "assisting the developing countries in an institution-building program within a total program of development" (Colorado State University Research Foundation, 1961, p. 2-3).

There are two avenues by which the PCV contributes to building an LDC culture/nation: 1) by promoting change in attitudes and institutions which hinder growth of a national identity or culture; 2) by attempting to stop or alter the pace of change which threatens to destroy already existing seeds of national growth or culture.

Changing attitudes is an important part of building a culture. Often it is necessary to subordinate goals of more schools or greater food production to goals of changing attitudes of people in such a way that they will be able to percieve on their own what they want and what they need, and then, by collective action, proceed to develop their nation on their own. The PCV can play a vital role in promoting this kind of community development, which the UN defines as,

> a process by which the efforts of the people themselves are united with those of governmental authorities to improve the economic, social and cultural conditions of communities, to integrate these communities into the life of the nation, and to enable them to contribute fully to national progress (Jones, 1966).

As a result of their training, PCVs are concerned with affecting the minds of the people of a community with less tangible but more lasting values and attitudes (Jones, 1966).

Thus, the first way in which a PCV contributes to LDC nation-building is by changing attitudes and institutions which are limited and narrow in outlook, much as PCV Jim Towers (Antigua) encourages Antiguans to look at a broad, overall picture of today, tomorrow and the future in terms of work and benefits.[7]

Very often, however, a developing country has had very few problems in adopting new, "modern" outlooks and goals. The problem occurs when these changed attitudes "get away" from the LDC and begin to destroy the culture which is at the very base of the nation-building process. When this occurs, a secondary avenue of approach by the PCV is called for.

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[7] Alis Foster, "Volunteer Finds 'No Man Is an Island' on Antigua," Miami Herald, Florida, December 12, 1976.

Inka Benton, PCV in Iran, is an example of this second approach to nation-building. As an urban planner, Benton's greatest challenge in Iran was convincing the Iranians to preserve their way of life:

> The government is pouring the oil money into street and road planning. It is all very short-sighted, paving enormous areas of streets, bulldozing through old sections, tearing down old buildings for wide, paved roads, and they don't even have many cars,' said the 58-year-old planner, architect and environmentalist.
>
> What they want is against the whole way of life in Iran. They feel they are becoming modern, but the area is hot and windy with a lot of sand storms. Wide streets encourage the sand storms and eliminate shade. The most pleasant thing is the old, winding streets.[8]

Jack Helfgott, PCV in Micronesia, has also been congronted with a misplaced Western culture and has found himself teaching Micronesians to go back to a traditional way of life:

> The school system that's been created there doesn't suit their civilization. The people are being overeducated for their life-style. This is leading to social problems, so we developed a sort of outward-bound program to teach them to go back to their roots.
>
> The program concentrates on troublesome youths from the larger towns who have strayed from the ancient ways. We're helping them go back to basics, back to the land and the sea of their ancestors...[9]

Thus, a strong cultural identity is the basis which fosters nation-building. Where certain attitudes and institutions impede the development of this identity and/or the process of nation-building, the goal of the PCV is to focus on changing these attitudes. Where the process of "modernization" has "progressed" so far or so fast as to erode the underlying cultural identity, the goal of the PCV has been to bring the LDC population back to its culture.

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[8] Joan Lisetor, "Helping Plan a Nation: Peace Corps Aide Gives View of Iran," Independent-Journal, San Rafael, California, December 18, 1976.

[9] Josie Z. Task, "Finds Service in Distant Micronesia Has Brought Him Closer to Judaism," Jewish News, Newark, NJ, December 16, 1976.

There are many examples of PCVs working to develop a cultural identity among local populations. Favorite examples usually cited concern PCVs promoting local arts and crafts. The experience of Julia and Isaiah Zager in Peru illustrates PCV involvement in local crafts and promoting local culture, national identity, and thus nation-building:

> We worked at developing cottage industries that would produce high-quality crafts and would preserve native skills. As we worked, we learned a lot and we developed a basic method for community development. We tried out our ideas in different situations and found that they worked. We even stayed an extra year to work in craft and community development in another area.[10]

Ali Fujino, a PCV in Honduras, was charged with compiling an arts and crafts survey to study marketing possibilities that could boost the country's economy. She helped promote Hondura's Mayan heritage by designing products consonant with that heritage and promoting embroidery cooperatives. Fujino has also helped to organize museums to house Mayan artifacts important to Honduran history. Thus, she has been involved in developing a strong cultural identity among Hondurans which will foster nation-building.

WHAT HAPPENS TO RETURNED PEACE CORPS VOLUNTEERS?

Current information on where former PCVs go is scanty, at best. However, much more has been written on the early years of the Peace Corps. Table 5 presents data on the career status of the first 5400 RPCVs.

In 1965 Secretary of State Dean Rusk commented on the Foreign Service and the RPCV:

> I can assure you, if you apply for the Foreign Service, that your experience in the Peace Corps will be a plus with respect to others who are applying for that Service... I hope very much that we can enlist a considerable number of you in our own work in the future.[11]

The PCV experience has also tended to further interest Volunteers in international careers. The Career Information Service worked with the Bureau of Recruitment for International Organizations of the Department of State attempting to identify former Volunteers for positions with the United Nations and other international organizations. At the end of 1965, 9 former PCVs were employed by international organizations and 35 by foreign governments (Calvert, 1966). Today, Bertran D. Smucker, director of overseas operations for CARE, where 60 to 150 staffers are former PCVs, says that "one of the biggest things about the Peace Corps is the great number of Volunteers who go into international work who would otherwise not have done so."[12]

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[10] Longworth, op. cit., p. 13.

[11] Calvert, op. cit., p. 12.

Early data show low figures for the number hired by private enterprise (498 out of 5400). Calvert suggests two points that might explain these figures: 1) a high percent of volunteers are drawn from liberal arts classes; 2) the trend is upward (in 1966), and, as many graduates not in school complete their professional training, the percent employed in business should climb (Calvert, 1966).

The 1972 data provide some interesting contrasts. The percent in school stayed roughly the same: 36% in 1963-65, 35.22% in 1972. Business increased from 11% in 1963-65 to 27.54 % in 1972 (see Tables 6 - 8).

It is interesting to note the relatively equal distribution of those wishing domestic employment and those desiring to work abroad (53.19 to 51.86, respectively). Also, the percent of those desiring further education is rather large -- 78.25%. Only 1.3% entered the Foreign Service; however, other sources put the percentage higher: The State Department "estimates that about 10% of its entering Foreign Service officers over the past 5 years have seen Peace Corps service. For AID the ratio is even higher. About 50 of AID's 100 yearly interns are former volunteers" (Interaction, 1976).

AWARDING COLLEGE CREDIT FOR THE PEACE CORPS EXPERIENCE

According to Woodman, the "climate has never been better" for Federal Government/college-university discussion of and cooperation in awarding academic credit for Peace Corps service. These institutions are already in the full swing of experimenting with service-learning programs in local communities, Indian reservations, cities and rural areas. Many various programs are in operation, from internships to University Year for ACTION to "universities without walls" (Woodman, 1975).

Criticisms of and Responses to Credit for Peace Corps Service

(1) Claim: Rewarding academic credit for Peace Corps service violates the philosophy of voluntarism ~~and the~~ spirit of Peace Corps service, and will result in a conflict of interest.

Counter: Academic activity can be integrated as a natural component of the PCV's regular work assignment; contingent college credit is an appropriate incentive quite compatible to the ethos of the Peace Corps and different from extra pay, etc. There will be no conflict of interest (Woodman, 1975).

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[12] Ibid., p. 117.

(2) Claim: The PCV cannot spend much time on academics and still pay full-time attention to his job.

Counter: This is more a problem of prevention rather than a need for cure. Sufficient supervision and control must be established from the start to ensure that academics do not impinge on the PCV's work in the field.

(3) Claim: The political sensitivities of host governments to PCVs "snooping around" collecting data will result in problems. The most innocent normal academic pursuits can be misinterpreted.

Counter: It will be necessary to get the cooperation and help of the host country in promoting the educational aspect of development and Peace Corps service, as well as their active participation in the researching process itself.

(4) Claim: Awarding credit will result in elitism within the Peace Corps and a schism between PCVs (separate identities between those receiving credit and those not).

Counter: The nature of work/study arrangements must be publicized, emphasizing the limits as well as possibilities of individual credit arrangements, so there will be no misconceptions of the arrangements under which different PCVs serve.

Rationale for Credit

(1) What is in it for the Peace Corps?

a. Credit will attract more and possibly better candidates to apply. Those college students most interested in the Peace Corps also tend to be interested in graduate school. Postponing or delaying school is a major factor against joining the Peace Corps;

b. Recruitment will improve. The opportunity to continue education without interruption will result in more people being willing to apply;

c. The attrition rate will decrease. A relationship between the PCV and a school, established before, during and after the Peace Corps experience abroad, should provide the PCV with more sense of purpose to his program and encourage his sticking with it while overseas.

(2) What is in it for the PCV?

a. Relevant, on-going education with "invaluable intercultural international experience" (Woodman, 1975);

b. The establishment of contacts for future employment and refining and developing career skills.

(3) What is in it for the university?

a. Better student quality. Work/study strengthens attitudes toward studying and sharpens the understanding of the relationship of theory to practice;

b. Increased faculty experience in international affairs and increased opportunities for research;

c. Increased reputation of the institution which will in turn attract better students to apply.

Many of the case studies cited earlier expressed or demonstrated a need of the RPCV to continue using the skills at home that he or she developed overseas. Another important observation is the large number of RPCVs that desire to continue their formal education. Thus, a "marriage" of the two, service to the community and university education, would be a valuable program to develop.

TABLE 1

Motives for Joining the Peace Corps

	Number	Percent
Giving:	2418	93
1. Ideal-oriented contributions	919	35
2. Internationally-oriented contributions	945	36
3. "People"-oriented contributions	1477	57
4. Task-oriented contributions	1250	48
Getting:	1708	65
1. Personal gains	827	32
2. Social gains	904	35
3. Practical gains	827	32
Substantiating Statements:	1457	56
1. Personal statements	806	31
2. Idealistic statements	1075	41

SOURCE: Gordon and Sizer, 1963, p. 42.

TABLE 2

Change in PCV Goals

	Pre-Peace Corps		Post-Peace Corps	
Goals	No.	%	No.	%
Career goals not defined	732	34.4	261	12.2
Teaching (all levels)	527	24.8	633	29.7
Business and industry	208	9.8	230	10.8
Social service	83	3.9	231	10.8
Health professions	119	5.6	127	5.9
Government	231	10.9	424	20.2
Agriculture and crafts	82	3.8	80	3.8
Other	144	6.8	140	6.6
TOTAL	2126	100.0	2126	100.0

SOURCE: Calvert, 1966.

TABLE 3

Applicability of Peace Corps Experience to Present Job

	No.	%
Very applicable	2160	32.4
Applicable	2323	34.8
Little relevance	1081	16.2
No relevance	835	12.5
No answer	269	4.0
TOTAL	6668	

TABLE 4

Reasons for Joining Peace Corps

	Primary		Secondary	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Desire to help	741	25.2	420	14.4
International understanding	199	6.8	184	6.3
Share skills	236	8.0	255	8.7
Adventure, travel	323	11.0	505	17.3
Interest in cultures	413	14.0	471	16.1
Career advancement	199	6.8	209	7.2
Get away to plan	221	7.5	235	8.1
Personal growth	537	18.2	602	20.6
Other	76	2.6	36	1.2
TOTAL	2945		2917	

SOURCE: Office of Evaluation, ACTION Agency, December 3, 1976.

TABLE 5

Career Status of the First 5400 RPCVs, 1963-65

Career Status	Total %
Continuing education	36
Graduate school	26
Undergraduate school	10
Employed	53
Federal government	13
State and local government	4
Job Corps and War on Poverty	2
Teaching	16
Business and profit-making organizations	11
Nonprofit organizations	7
Other	11

SOURCE: Calvert, 1966.

TABLE 6

Employment Status of RPCVs (1972)

	#	%
Unemployed	406	11.16
Employed	2293	62.92
Student Only	503	13.80
Student & Employed	491	14.48
TOTAL	3693	

TABLE 7

Employers (1972)

	#	%
State Agency	290	10.60
Federal Agency	299	10.93
Local Government	148	5.41
Private Firm	753	27.54
School	963	35.22
Social Services	170	6.21
Health Services	135	4.93
Politics	2	.07
TOTAL	2760	

TABLE 8

RPCV Goals Being Met Through Present Job (1972)

	#	%
YES	937	43.99
NO	408	19.15
PARTIALLY	785	36.85
Total	2130	

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VOLUNTEER INTERNSHIPS:
IMPLICATIONS FOR COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT

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INTRODUCTION

Students who engage in internship programs for academic credit without remuneration are often excluded under the traditional definition of a volunteer. More specifically, students obtain their internships through academic programs instead of through established volunteer placement organizations, thus reducing their visibility as a volunteer.

In community development, a field heavily relying upon volunteers, the utilization of interns becomes highly significant for successful program development. Community development agencies, typically underfunded, continually need trained personnel to provide program direction to individual projects. Furthermore, students are increasingly seeking avenues for the application of academically acquired skills and knowledge and finding them through involvement in such projects. It is our contention that internship programs which combine service with learning effectively meet the needs of both students and community development agencies.

STAFFING IN COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMS

Community development is an ambiguous process that has as many definitions as there are professionals carrying out its mission. For purposes of this paper we choose to define this complex process as people coming together to help solve widely shared needs. Such needs span the horizons of program/projects that include many of the following: (Thompson, 1969)

-transportation
-housing
-employment
-energy and its conservation
-leadership and decision making
-safety
-public works
-recreation and leisure living programs
-youth/senior citizens
-corrections
-human rights

With programs like these serving as the major foundation of specific project designs, sponsors are, indeed, diverse and far reaching. With the Cooperative Extension Service having served as a major pioneer in the field of community development, we now see civic groups, non-profit corporations, local/county government, and numerous academic and private concerns formally entering the field and succeeding quite well. Although both the audiences and related strategies differ widely, there remain several cross-cutting concerns shared by all such sponsors.

Viewing such concerns as professional and community challenges, the opportunity presents itself to identify and elaborate upon selected program obstacles not uncommon to community development advocates. As we match up needs with success, the issue of support becomes critical. Support is viewed as resources that must exist to some practical extent for success. Such resources are lumped into the following:

-human (staff, personnel expertise)
-material (equipment, supplies, funding, etc.)
-natural (environment)

In this paper, it is not our desire or intention to advocate changes in natural or material resources but to focus on the human resource domain. This decision is based on both practicality and the notion that there exists some "finite" degree of material resources to contribute. The logic for this position stems from the ability for human resources to, in fact, generate and help control the remaining other resource domains. Without ample staffing supports, "fail-factors" multiply out of reach. Evidence of this concern can be highlighted by many of the following situations: (HUD, 1976)

-no project coordinator
-inability to keep abreast of important developments
-time limitations of recruiting project support
-bookkeeping and written tabulation slow-downs

Ample staffing in many projects is a luxury enjoyed by an elite few. In rare cases, indeed, do situations arise that limit the scope of increased staff needs. Community development projects generally follow a normal progression of stages, i.e. problem investigation through conclusion. As one moves through the various stages, demands for a natural/material resource, to some reasonable degree, arise and receed. The necessity for staff, we assert, remains relatively intense for a practical degree of success to materialize. Although this need universally exists, finding a solution to such a demand can be both stifling and frustrating.

An innovative yet seldomly used strategy for solution of this continually growing dilemma is the use of volunteers, more specifically student interns.

STUDENT INTERNSHIPS: A SERVICE-LEARNING APPROACH

The Service-Learning Internship Model has been defined as the integration of task that meets a human or organizational need with conscious educational growth (Sigmund, 1974). More specifically the model calls for students to engage in planned work-learning tasks under the combined supervision of a faculty member and an agency sponsor. The internship thus provides a laboratory setting in which students can apply and test their academically acquired skills and knowledge and in doing so assist the sponsoring organization in carrying out its mission.

Although there are a variety of configurations to this model, typically service-learning internships are 10-15 weeks in duration, require a full-time commitment, and provide academic credit toward a degree. While some internship programs provide some sort of financial remuneration, the vast majority of student internships are voluntary in nature. Students participating in these programs seek opportunities to explore the career potential of the field and to acquire practical "hands on" experience.

In addition to goals of providing manpower assistance to agencies and learning opportunities for students, internship programs that focus on economic and social development also seek:

1. to encourage young people to consider careers and citizen leadership in programs of development and provide a pool of trained personnel for recruitment in public service;
2. to allow students, agency personnel and faculty to engage in a shared learning experience from which all can benefit;
3. to provide additional avenues of communication between institutions of higher learning and programs of social and economic development by making the resources of academia more accessible to the community and providing a means for relating curriculum, teaching and research to contemporary societal needs.

The dynamic relationship between the manpower and educational goals gives vitality to the experiences of all involved. The service aspect of the model carries with it an obligation to contribute to the welfare of others or to the community and thus serves as a means for individual fulfillment and development. (SREB, 1973)

Although there are numerous advantages in utilizing student interns as temporary staff, internships should not be viewed as a total panacea. For most students, their internship is their first encounter with the professional working world. Consequently they need not only good orientation to the agency's mission but also to its mode of operation, style of dress and relationship to other organizations. The time it takes to provide this type of information will vary with the agency and the type of student intern selected. Normally, this will be no greater time burden than what would be provided to any other new employee. The critical problems come in the temporary nature of the internship. Unless the projects an intern is responsible for are planned for completion within the internship period, an agency will be faced with half-finished programs and no one to complete them. Furthermore, if any agency is to rely continually on interns to meet manpower shortages they must be assured of a constant source of students through a campus intern program.

Moreover, those students who do not have the opportunity or choose not to participate in an internship enter the job market upon graduation a half-step behind those students who have acquired field experience. For these students adjustment to a new job will be more traumatic and the learning that occurs will be acquired through the "seat of the pants" approach with little opportunity for systematic assimilation of that learning. The old maxim about experience being the best teacher may not be absolutely true but experience combined with directed reflection and theoretical synthesis is, in our opinion, far better than traditional classroom learning.

MEETING MUTUAL NEEDS: COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT STAFFING THROUGH STUDENT INTERNS

Why the Concern for Combining Student Internships and Community Development Programs

In a broad sense the emphasis is two-fold: providing students with meaningful learning experiences related to career pursuits, and increasing the scope and complexity of community development programs through added staff. More specifically, looking at the first of the two emphasized areas, students have an opportunity to do the following:

-learn how to function in the agency
-apply theoretical knowledge to practical application
-learn to cope with employment pressure and frustration
-enhance their ability to be more innovative and independent
-improve the quality of life around them

Turning attention to the community development agency, some of the assets to be gained through the utilization of student interns from the University are:

-introduction of new ideas that lead to greater program dimensions
-objectivity of previously uninvolved students will yield greater
  insight into removing program barriers

-increased linkage and access to university resources

Given the above benefits to student and sponsoring agency, the question becomes one of how to operationalize the concept.

A Strategy for Implementation

Academic internship programs exist within a vast majority of our country's college campuses. Although they vary in both structure and expectations their conformity to the Service-Learning Model, previously articulated, is relatively uniform. The question then becomes one of how the community development agencies tap into such programs in an effort to help reduce staffing/project needs. The following chronology is presented as a broad approach/strategy for community development agencies.

1st Step - There must exist a commitment by the community development agency to the student learning experience. This means not using students for "slave labor" or as menial help.

2nd Step - Set up a set of measurable objectives for the student's expectations, i.e. qualifications, time, others.

3rd Step - Contact your local college internship office or your state's land-grant university internship office. If a separate internship office does not exist contact the appropriate subject matter Dean for information and/or referral.

4th Step - Make contact with the college person coordinating the internship to establish communication linkages, and arrive at mutual agreeable objectives and procedures. Be prepared to exercise flexibility in accommodating academic requirements.

5th Step - Interview students for screening as to qualities desired, remembering that nobody is better than anybody.

6th Step - After student selection, specify what is expected and provide all necessary information to the student in order that he/she may successfully complete the work assigned. More specifically, the agency needs to set up a supervisory pattern, provide for a comfortable introduction of the student to the staff, program and its objectives.

It is imperative that throughout the internship a feedback mechanism be set up to provide information back to both the student and academic unit.

Program "Fail-Factors" in Such a Combination

The following is presented in an attempt to highlight common problems from the academic unit, the student, and agency perspective. Its intent is to help eliminate those problems which continually are duplicated because of the lack of written discussion. Such documentation is virtually non-existent.

From the academic unit perspective the following are offered as barriers to successful implementation:

-poor articulation of student-to-agency and student-to-academic unit expectations
-lack of communications to both student and agency after placement
-unrealistic academic expectations from the agency
-failure of the academic unit to exercise flexibility with both the agency and/or student

Looking at the student perspective, problems can be categorized as follows:

-lack of skill maturity, motivation, and/or dependability
-financial hardships

The agency perspective is separated into the following concerns:

-poor supervision, communication and feedback
-poor planning and design of student learning experiences
-impractical expectations (too high or low)
-poor program thus leading toward insignificant learning by the student
-inability to make the student fit in with the agency

Long Term Implications

In an attempt to organizationally simplify this section, the perspective of the student and agency will be separated. Looking first at the student perspective the following are offered:

-increased training
-opportunity for professional career goal experience
-greater understanding of employment expectations
-ease of gaining and adjusting to employment
-identification of personal/professional strengths and weaknesses

The agency stands to gain in the following areas:

-receipt of a continual source of staff through internship programs

- -broadening the ties with the university
- -enjoy planned rather than reactionary change
- -increase the overall scope and complexity of programs
- -increase the utilization of limited budgets and staff

SUMMARY

It has been the purpose of this paper to present an overview of how the volunteer student intern, operating within the Service-Learning Model, can be utilized to successfully meet staffing needs for community development organizations. In an attempt to provide direction to the coupling of student internships and community development programs, we readily perceive both assets as well as liabilities. Student internships, regulated properly, do help improve the effectiveness of program operations. It appears that even with stated "fail-factors" the benefits well out-weigh any and all liabilities. Furthermore, although many intern programs have existed for over a decade, they have not been utilized to their full capacity in community development. We feel it is the role and mission of our colleges and universities to both publicize and make such programs available to organizations in need of assistance. The concerted goal of such a joint endeavor becomes one of our academic institutions utilizing their students in the improvement of conditions that affect us all.

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PREPARING STUDENTS AS PEER ADVISORS FOR VOLUNTEERS

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The utilization of students as peer advisors for volunteers in a volunteer service-learning program is a facinating and challenging approach to supervising the activities of students who volunteer in community service, educational institutions and governmental agencies. At California State College Dominguez Hills, students have been involved in leadership roles from the very beginning of the volunteer program - Educational Participation in Communities (EPIC). The role of the students included recruiting students into the program, placing them in community agencies and providing follow-up of the volunteers progress. During the 1974-75 Academic Year, a course was designed to allow for academic credit for the student staff. To put the program in perspective, some additional historical data is necessary.

HISTORICAL DATA

The EPIC Program began at Cal State Dominguez Hills in 1971 with a small seed grant of $3,000 from the California Coordinating Council of Higher Education under Title I, Higher Education Act of 1965, "University Community Service". During the 1972 - 73 Academic Year, the EPIC Program received $18,000 from the federal government and $6,000 in matching college funds. During the 1973 - 74 Academic Year, the Program received $24,000 from the federal government and $12,000 in matching college funds. Initially the Program was housed in the Student Affairs area. The staff, including the student staff, was paid out of funds that had been secured from the grant. The Program progressed to the point of institutionalization and it was transferred to the Academic Affairs area. EPIC became a part of the Experiential Education Program that was in existence on the campus. Two EPIC courses were developed from which funds were generated to provide for faculty members to become involved with the program. Funds for the student staff were provided by an established budgeting source on the campus and through the Student Association. The standards of the college's Student Assistant Personnel Board were in effect as to the hiring of students. Inasmuch as the Program began to grant academic credit, it became necessary to clearly define the Programs role in the educational growth and development of its students both staff and volunteers. A description of the Program follows.

PROGRAM DESCRIPTION

EPIC is a campus wide voluntary service-learning program that recruits students enrolled at Cal State Dominguez Hills to serve as tutors/bilingual tutors, casework aides, administrative aides, big brothers/sisters, counselors and in a variety of other settings. The students are able to test career related goals and gain invaluable pre-professional experience. In addition, students are able to test academic theories in a practical situation and provide a needed service to the community. EPIC is a model of experiential learning that mixes informal with formal learning, thereby, making college more valuable to students. The basic aim of the Program is two-fold: It provides students an opportunity for off-campus learning experiences in the "real world" in an organized fashion and provides for active involvement in community agencies, educational institutions and governmental agencies in solving the multifaceted problems that besets our society. This involvement results in a mutually beneficial relationship between the student, the college, and the communities which CSDH serves. Curriculum development has been an on-going process which has allowed us to develop the methods that are most effective in meeting the needs of the community and the students.

CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT

The development of curriculum for EPIC has been an on-going process from the inception of the Program on the campus in 1971. Independent Study was the form of credit most frequently used by students in the formative years. In addition, course credit was allowed by some professors for their students involvement with the Program. With the move to Academic Affairs, two courses were developed. Experiential Education 207: EPIC STAFF TRAINING and Experiential Education 208: EPIC INTERNSHIP.

The course description for Experiential Education 207: EPIC STAFF TRAINING as stated in the CSDH catalog is as follows:

> "Staff members are trained to coordinate EPIC functions. These functions enrail interviewing, placing, supervising, and evaluating student interns. The training provides instruction in organization and managerial techniques."

For Experiential Education 208: EPIC INTERNSHIP, the course description is:

> "The basic course of EPIC interns not receiving credit for volunteer work in other courses. Students participate at selected agency field sites in solving problems in such areas as drug abuse, juvenile delinquency, and remedial tutoring. The student test occupational goals by applying academic theory to real situations. Students are involved in training, seminar, and evaluation sessions."

During the 1975 -76 Academic Year, we were engaged in a demonstration project in order to determine the best methods for teaching and/or training the student staff members to perform effectively. During that year, the curriculum included mini-lectures in such areas as interviewing techniques, the evaluation process, team building techniques, and problem solving techniques. The training provided instruction in organizational and managerial techniques utilizing a PERT chart. In addition, the classroom setting was an open forum, planning by objectives and a weekly conference with the instructor were part of the training.

The results of the demonstration project were such that a reorganization of the curriculum content would prove to be invaluable to the student staff in the long run as well as lending itself to the overall goals and objectives of the EPIC Program. Some of the findings were: (1) The student staff was made up of students from several disciplines, (2) Not all of the staff members were service oriented, (3) The attrition rate was high, (4) A misperception of roles occured among some of the staff members, (5) Learning in an organized fashion was not in evidence. However, there were several members of the staff who were able to secure positions of importance in agencies and organizations in the community as a result of their training and exposure in the Program. Some of the job titles and salaries are listed below.

POSITIONS	SALARY
Volunteer Coordinator	$ 700.00
Productions Manager	900.00
Children's Treatment Counselor	950.00
Job Resource Specialist	1,200.00
Assistant Industrial Engineer Planner	1,200.00
Community Organizer Specialist	1,300.00

In addition to the above stated job titles and salaries, two of the staff members were accepted into the Credential Program in the School of Education at CSDH, one was accepted into the Masters Program in Counseling at the University of Southern California and one was accepted into Medical School at Case Western Reserve. Two of the staff members were listed in Who's Who in American Colleges and Universities.

Grading for all courses in the Experiential Education Program is on a Credit/No Credit basis. The EPIC student staff's grade was based primarily on performance. With the reorganization of the curriculum, grading is based on completion of specified performance objectives and learning objectives as well as completion of projects that entail keeping up-to-date information readily available to the volunteers, the agencies as well as the college administration.

RATIONALE FOR REORGANIZING THE CURRICULUM

The curriculum for the student staff was largely performance oriented; In-depth learning as it related to the student volunteers was not in evidence in terms of supervisorial skills and an attempt to minimize the other problems uncovered during the demonstration project provides the rationale for restructuring the curriculum content. The number of students who left the Program and were able to secure positions of importance and gain entrance into graduate schools was also a factor.

All of the factors listed previously are included in the curriculum which we began using during the Fall 1976 Quarter. The training will take place over a four quarter period of time and the curriculum has been organized into themes. The students that are receiving academic credit can accumulate up to 16 units of Experiential Education credit. Students that join the staff in the middle of a quarter can begin the academic side of the training at the beginning of the next quarter and continue to enroll in the Program until all the course outlines have met.

Themes for the quarters are as follows: Developing Leadership Skills, Developing Supervisorial Skills, Learn While you Earn and the Evaluation Process. The Development of Leadership Skills involves defining the goals and objectives of the EPIC Program and its relationship to the college and the community; identifying roles and functions of the staff; interviewing and selecting staff; training and evaluating staff; establishing and maintaining a system of communication and dealing with problems that are common to groups.

Developing Supervisorial Skills involves interviewing students for the Program, counseling techniques, job analysis, managing unsatisfactory students and motivating students. The curriculum for Learn While you Earn has as its primary focus the individual staff member in order to provide a motivating force to continue to learn after the student has left college. It involves the notion of on-going training processes, elements of learning and problems related to training and staff development. The Evaluation Process is concerned with program planning, budgeting, data collection and use of data.

SUMMARY

Students as staff members who have acted as advisors for student volunteers at Cal State Dominguez Hills have been an integral part of the growth and development of the EPIC Program on that campus. Their experiences have led them into positions of importance and assisted them in gaining entrance into graduate school. The need for curricula that continues to enhance their growth and development once they have left the EPIC Program or college is worthy of development inasmuch as it is of a broad base and it can be extended to a life-long learning process. The student will benefit, the community will benefit by having someone in a position who has as a motivating force the desire to continue to learn and to put what is learned into use. The college will benefit by putting young minds to work in constructive activities and allowing them to act as ambassadors for the college. In conclusion, the preparation of students as peer advisors for volunteers at Cal State Dominguez Hills prepares students for life time involvement in the world of work that is service oriented.

C. EFFECTIVENESS OF TRAINING PROGRAMS TO PREPARE ADMINISTRATORS

TRAINING NEW VOLUNTEERS FOR COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION

Willis K. Bright, Jr., Assistant Professor, Center for Youth Development and Research, University of Minnesota
Maurice Kramer, Assistant State 4-H Leader, Iowa State University Extension Service
Arthur Johnson, Associate Professor, Extension Sociology, Iowa State University Extension Service

> "Whenever any attempt is made to begin confronting America's problems, we encounter a profile and lack of understanding. This lack of understanding is not nearly as phenomenal of the masses for it extends to the powerful, well-educated and the elite; it is not simply a lack of knowledge for it includes many people who possess more than enough information. Its basis is a pervasive unreality...Unreality is the true source of powerlessness. What we do not understand we cannot control and when we cannot comprehend the major forces, structures and values that pervade our existence, they must inevitably come to dominate us. Thus a true definition of an American crisis would say this, we no longer understand the system under which we live; hence the structure has become obsolete and we have become powerless."[1]

Problem Situation

The need for people who can understand the community organizations and systems which affect their lives is necessary if democratic traditions are to be maintained. It is not only necessary that people have some degree of "understanding" of the processes and methods of decision-making, but that they also be able to develop strategies which can give them a degree of "power" over their personal lives and influence on those who make decisions affecting their schools, housing, jobs and social activities. Nowhere is the need for information and skill development in "influence techniques" more operative than for those citizens who may be disenfranchised because they are young, non-white, poor, aged or any combination of these characteristics. In many cases, these groups have an abundance of "reality" about conditions which affect their lives--lack of recreation, poor housing conditions and a lack of respect from others because of their age, sex or race. This group of citizens are those most affected by the phenomenon of "unreality" described by Charles Reich. Further, these are the people who have the least information and knowledge to influence the process and content of their local community leaders who decide what is best for them. Because many people in these groups have never been in educational programs, families or social/political situations where such skills are obtained as part of one's daily life experience, their concept of organizational reality may be terribly distorted, if not completely inaccurate. Despite the fact that attempts have been made to increase the participation of the poor, the young, etc., in decision-making bodies, there is evidence that their effectiveness has been marginal when they have not mastered the same organizational know-how as their colleagues. This has been most dramatic when only one person has been put on the committee or commission. It seemed that more skills, as well as knowledge, about how to be a good citizen participant are necessary for people to get the confidence necessary to feel they can influence the processes which control their lives.

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[1] (Reich, 1970 p. 12-13)

Project Development Considerations

There was much discussion of this situation by the authors of this paper after they had particpated in developing a leadership workshop for a Model Cities Youth Council in 1971. This Youth Council, Black, urban teenagers, spent days discussing their community, its problems, and how they wanted to spend their money to help improve it. We became convinced that youth--especially Black youth--could be trained to more effectively seek involvement in community development activities; could influence the processes of group decision-making when they understood what it was; and could serve as a cohort and stimulant to many adults who might have been overwhelmed by the realities of their life concerns and their prior experiences with power structures. We concur with the National Commission on Resources for Youth which states:

> "Communities--all communities--would be wise to recognize and make use of the vital resources available in their young citizens. Young people are impatient when they see a problem and they get an idea about how to cope with it, they want action.. Often their enthusiasm can carry them over obstacles that would discourage adults and their optimism seems to accelerate their ability to develop skills necessary for dealing with problems. Added to enthusiasm and optimism of physical and mental energy and a remarkable capacity for single-minded dedication to something they feel is truly important with support from the school and community, young people can develop and learn to use the proper problem-solving skills so desperately needed for coping for current and future social problems. Most programs that involve students and community action have some basic steps in common. (1) The identification and selection of real community problems; (2) The appointment of school and community administrators who are sympathetic to unique problems that youngsters are likely to encounter; and (3) The establishment of adequate training programs."[2]

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[2] (National Commission on Resources for Youth, 1974)

There was no limit to the problems that youth perceived in their environment. From the young people themselves we were able to ascertain that they very much want to be part of an experience which would make them more able to impact their environment. Some of the things in their schools and communities which they opted to change were: the lack of recreation services for their peers, the lack of attention given younger children, racism in schools and the lack of opportunity to interact with one another in a meaningful way in places they could be together. Another important message obtained from the young people was a great awareness of their degree of consciousness about maintenance of a clear racial and ethnic identity. Being Black and Beautiful was well integrated into the self-concept of the young people to whom we spoke about our project concept. It was reflected in their hairstyle, language and in their concerns for their neighborhoods and schools. The racial pride which had been a feeling to arouse in the 60's had become a reality in the 70's. In the project planning a major consideration was how to integrate this strong ethnic group consciousness into program substance which could increase the commitment of youth to community service and participation. Dr. Gisela Konopka outlines some rights of youth which should be considered in any program endeavor in their behalf (the same should apply for any group). They are: "1. The right of the individual to be himself, to think his own thoughts, and to speak them consistent to the rights of others; 2. The right to grow and develop his abilities to his utmost potential; 3. The right to air grievances and to seek redress; 4. The right to mistakes without unreasonable punishment; and 5. The right to justice."[3]

It seems that many institutions which service non-white youths are reluctant to encourage youth to identify with their ethnic group and the condition which they might experience. This seems particularly acute in the public school system where most non-white youth are educated.

Dr. Konopka implores us to give youth the opportunity to:

> "To participate as equals within families at work and within the society. People are not born knowing how to make decisions and must gain experience, learn how to weigh alternatives and make choices.
>
> To think about themselves in relation to others; to find out how they are different; how they are the same as others. What is their identity? How do they like themselves?
>
> To discuss conflicting values, to experiment and try on roles, ideas, relationships. Educators and those who work with you have a special part in this development."[4]

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[3] (Konopka, 1973, p. 4)

[4] (Youth's Rights to be Regarded as Persons, page 11)

Out of the above deliberations, discussions and validation of the need for a workshop to give Black youth training in skills which could aid their participation in community activities--whether at school or in the broader community--the Leadership Workshop for Community Development was created. It became immediately apparent that it would be necessary to sell the university, community groups and even some youth themselves that their potential for community participation was possible. The 4-H and Youth Service with its long history in citizenship and/or leadership development programs seemed the best place within the university to launch such an ambitious project. The substantive content of the workshop was later adapted for adults in one of the communities from which youth had been selected for the Leadership Workshop for Community Development. The Leadership Workshop for Community Development will primarily be discussed in the balance of this paper.

The Leadership Workshop for Community Development

The Leadership Workshop for Community Development (hereafter referred to as LWCD) was conducted for three years 1972-1975. A synthesis of the three year program activities will be presented. Each workshop had three phases: pre-workshop; the camp workshop; post workshop community involvement.

Pre-Workshop Phase

Participant recruitment and selection--six Iowa communities with the largest black and non-white populations were selected as target communities. Each was to recruit an equal number of youth for the project. Forty youth per year was the goal. Participants would be selected based on the following criteria (an average of 36 youth attended):

> Participants were: Boys and girls from 15-18 years old--an equal number of each diverse--who were leaders, who were not, 1/3 of those who seemed to have potential for greater leadership, i.e., as exhibited by their community activity; were either a representative or from a range of economic groups; in/out of school; recommended by schools, community centers, 4-H staff, citizens or by the project directors.

The project directors visited each community prior to the workshop in order to: coordinate with the local 4-H staff person for that county. The person as coordinator was responsible for functions ranging from setting up meetings with community leaders and school officials to arranging transportation for youth to the week camp workshop. Visits with community people and school officials was not only oriented to recruitment but focused upon initiating some "consciousness" about youth participation which hopefully would contribute to greater "support" for youth when they returned to their home community. Another function to the pre-visit was to meet with youth who might be interested in the project. It was important that youth realize the difference between a camp workshop which was primarily "task" oriented to a "recreation" oriented camp. As a result of this effort 85% of the workshop participants had had prior contact with one or both of the project directors before they arrived. This aided greatly in reducing anxiety about the program as well as facilitated in getting people from different communities acquainted. Parents, with whom there were evening meetings in the community, could be supportive of the project and relieved about who their child would be with when away from home--a priority concern of many non-white parents. Local coordinators, former counselors, and former participants aided greatly in the community information and recruitment/interviews after the first year. Absolutely essential in this endeavor was the local coordinator--this role would be necessary whether a program was local or state-wide, as was LWCD.

Final selection of workshop participants was made by the project directors in consultation with the local community coordinators and community consultants. Guidelines for the final selection was based on the diversity criteria laid out for the local community selection.

After the final group was selected there was a meeting with youth counselors and their parents to begin to discuss problems in the community. The group selected one problem to which it would address itself at the camp workshop. Hopefully when they returned to the community they would attempt to apply their solution which they would develop at the camp workshop. Youth were encouraged to bring maps, documents and other information which would be helpful to them in their discussion of the problem. Here again, the local coordinators were extremely helpful in this process of the pre-workshop. They conducted these sessions and assisted with the acquisition of community data. Multiple loan arrangements were negotiated with community agencies. This included loan of staff as counselors, providing transportation to the camp workshop at the State 4-H Camp, and employment for some of those youth who attended the workshop. The primary source of employment was the Neighborhood Youth Corps program. This worked well for youth whose incomes were compatible with the guidelines for the program. However, for youth who were of more middle-income backgrounds, the employment opportunities in agencies would not allow their active participation.

The Camp Workshop Phase

The workshop content focused on four major areas: (1) group process, decision-making, and community development theories; (2) community change strategies (skills and analysis); (3) self-awareness and assertiveness, and; (4) community participation.

(1) Theories of group process and community development--The experiences in the 4-H leadership program have emphasized learning theory, and have trained young people to evaluate decision-making processes. The community development workshop did give some attention to this phase, but focused more on how young people can apply this information in community groups. Staff focused special attention on solving problems of low income communities.

(2) Self-awareness and assertiveness training--A person who aspires to become a leader should have an awareness of his human potential and value. The lack of this awareness has been a barrier to minority and disadvantaged people who should be involved in decision-making. The experiences in the leadership workshop are designed to help people develop a positive self-image, and to help them build confidence in their abilities. That is crucial to their impact in group decision-making situations.

(3) Expertise in development of community change strategies--Each of the young people at the workshop will be asked to bring a community problem to the session...one from his own community. Groups will develop change strategies to cope with the problems, and community people will react to the students' solutions. The community panel will serve as the "reality testing" group...the group that can determine how effective a proposed solution will be. This is the most crucial portion of the week's training; being able to translate learned leadership skills to a home community environment.

(4) Community participation--The workshop will emphasize involving community resources in problem-solving. A goal is to have each participant assigned to work with a community-based agency after they return home. Follow-up visits by workshop staff will be made in each community to assess student involvement and agency reaction.

The workshop daily activities flowed from the philosophy expressed from the assumptions stated above. How were these content objectives programatized? A typical day's activities will be outlined with discussion to show how the objectives were operationalized.

Camp Workshop Content

6:45 a.m. Get Up

7:00 a.m. Calisthenics--"To have a strong, healthy body is necessary for those who will be involved in the community." Calisthenics included activities such as yoga, dance movement or run and dip (swim). All community members participated, even in the job after the particular physical activity (most days that is).

7:15 a.m. Clean Up--Clean Body for Health

8:00 a.m. Breakfast--Participants in family group cooked the breakfast. Teamwork required to plan menu; prepare and serve food and clean up.

9:00 a.m. Morning Meditation--A thought for the day prepared by a family group; a song, a poem, silence, etc. to get the community motivated for its day's work.

9:15 a.m. Workshop I--You the Group Member--What kind of roles do you play in a group? What is a "playboy--gatekeeper?" What kind of needs do people get fulfilled in a group? Role play a meeting--How did you feel when he/she started to clown when you wanted to say something?, etc.

11:15 a.m. Community Meeting--Experience in the Concept of Collective Decision-making. Decisions can be made using consensus rather than voting; simple parliamentary procedure; role of chairman at a meeting; special emphasis on developing an agenda.

The community meeting was one of the blocks on which the camp workshop was built. It was "participatory democracy" in action. During orientation the workshop participants and staff hear the non-negotiable rules of the camp, i.e., respect shown to others; noise (record players, etc.) limited to 10:00 because of other campers; no smoking in cabins; terms of the contract signed by the participants and staff. All other rules for maintenance of the community were made by the community where all participants, including project directors, had one vote each. The community meeting was the place where problems related to relations with staff/participants or complaints regarding program content were discussed.

Examples of some topics discussed at community meetings: Breakfast would be prepared by community rather than catered; all assignments for camp maintenance (food service, etc.) were negotiated by family groups; two participants who had a conflict talked it out with group members rather than fighting (we never had one in the three years); boys could only go to the girls' cabin after 4:00 p.m. and must leave if any girl asks them; swim time was changed to both morning and afternoon because it was so hot--morning session conducted at night instead of a program; supported project directors request to have at least the dinner meals without Earth, Wind and Fire blasting.

While project directors occasionally had some nail biting moments, the majority of decisions made by this method were fair. They did not compromise program content and definitely increased a feeling of "ownership" of the program by the youth participants. If for no other reason, we support "experiments" of youth/adults both in shared decision-making and the responsibility for consequences of their action. Youth who are being "trained" to participate in community decision-making must be able to "experience" the kind of community that they might "advocate" as desirable.

12:00 a.m. Lunch (Served by Family Group)

1:15 p.m. Workshop II--Resources for Programs and Planning--This workshop presented the kinds of considerations one should make when planning programs which involve people or resources outside of a local club, organization or church. Included was how to find groups who might be interested in your program; how to develop a short program proposal; how to get on the agenda for another group's meeting; how to present yourself and your idea to a group you want to support your idea; publicity; practicum involved the development of a short request; people acted as one another's panel.

3:30 p.m. Family Group--Time to plan the evening program, meditation, etc., for which a group might be responsible--rap time with adult counselors and peers assigned to group for one week.

4:30 p.m. Initiative Exercise--Individual or Group--Activities at obstacle course created on model of Outward Bound Confidence Course. Example: (a) group has 3 minutes to get all its members over a 12 foot wall--no ropes; (b) be alone for 20 minutes, etc.

5:00 p.m. Free Time--swim, trampoline, dance, sleep, talk

6:15 p.m. Dinner

7:30 p.m. Program--Family Groups Rotate Presentations: Skits, games, etc. Materials were available and encouragement was given for expression of the black experience through music, dancing, poetry, etc.

9:00 p.m. Snacks

10:10 p.m. Evening Meditation and Closing Thoughts for the Day

11:00 p.m. Lights Out--Quiet Time (usually)

Other Significant Content

Cultural Arts Fair--One afternoon was spent in exploring the Arts as a medium of self-expression. Resource people, counselors and youth participants held workshops in: African dance, drawing, drama, music (vocal), photography, video-taping, tie dyeing.

Proposal Writing and Preparation--Much of this day would be focused on helping the participants begin to pull their ideas into a formal proposal which would be presented to adult "reaction" panels during the next afternoon. Emphasis was placed upon clear problem definition, use of quantitative and life experience data to illuminate problem definition; realistic budgeting, etc.

Friday Panel--A combination of public officials from the hometowns of the youth participants, resource people from the University, and staff, served as "reaction panels." They became the Des Moines City Council, the Fort Dodge School Board, or whatever body was needed by the proposal content. By having people familiar with the community, panel reactions were very authentic. The youth would present their "proposed" solution to the panels--a request for a youth center, a change in the curriculum to include more black studies, an art fair, a youth center plan, etc. The panel would accept/reject the proposal and would then critique youth on how they possibly could have been more convincing.

Post Workshop Activity

Counselors voluntarily met with youth when they returned home to plan any follow-up action; the local extension coordinator was to assist when possible. This model was abolished after the first year. The only youth who "collectively" implemented their plans this first year was a group which came from one community as part of their summer work experience (the workshop served as part of their orientation). This group developed a youth newspaper, an art fair, and conducted a very successful cross-cultural workshop. In the second and third year of the project much effort was spent to get youth jobs in the same agency and to get one person designated in that agency who would work with them. This approach worked more effectively and seemed essential to insure maximum follow-through by "groups from a city." Projects conducted included: 1) cultural art fairs; 2) coordination with adults seeking black teachers in schools. Youth testified at a school board meeting regarding this issue; 3) presentation of a proposal to the Recreation Board for a part-time staff--position later funded; 4) recreation program for young children developed and conducted; 5) a black student organization was revitalized and a sponsor obtained; 6) follow-up with city council person met at camp to discuss plans for a teen center then was referred to teen council in community; 7) youth developed a leadership experience for other youth.

On the level of the individual participant schools, community residents, etc. reported better self concepts in some youth; more participation in activities in school and community by workshop participants. There were more aspirations for college attendance and community work careers, better job performance and greater awareness of their racial identity. These were the changes reported which seemed to excite some people who work in the youths' environment.

For two years youth were given locus of control questionnaires in an informal survey to determine if the workshop had an effect upon participants perceptions of what forces controlled their life--internal, (external), luck/chance/powerful others.Questionnaires were given on the first and last day of the workshop. They were readministered in the community two to four months from the time the participants left the workshop. During the first testing participants rated luck and powerful others as primary forces that controlled events in their lives. The internal scale was lowest. By the end of the weekend the internal scale was highest with external dropping to second and third position. In the community test the internal scale had dropped somewhat, but still remained higher than external/luck forces. A more systematic research project is needed.

What was Learned from this Project?

John Mitchell addressed one phenomenon we reaffirmed over three years of experimenting with LWCD. Youth need to feel important and to contribute to their communities. Mitchell contends that: "The only way self-importance can be completely experienced is as a result of doing important work...we have come to accept the idea that young people feel important if we tell them they are important or if we demonstrate to them that we hold them in high esteem. This is only partially correct, and these techniques only partly satisfy the need for self-importance. Proof is in doing, not in being told. A corollary of the need for self-importance is the need to make significant contributions to the environment in which one lives. Again being told is not enough. Youth need to contribute to the significant events in their world. We sublimate this impulse by granting token opportunities for contribution as with sexual sublimation, however, this is not successful and results in frustration."[3] Whether the participation of the youth was in the management of the Leadership Workshop for Community Development, developing an art fair, or presenting a proposal to a panel of officials the young people experienced significance--their effort made a difference.

1. Youth need "significant" adults who can directly work with them to help them assess their various strategies and ideas. Those youth who worked in groups with a sensitive facilitator were more likely to create "community" projects than individual youth or those in more informal relationships with adults. Reality testing from an experienced person is essential for youth development in communities or as people.

2. Adult attitudes toward youth as participants and influences of decision-makers is a clear limitation of what youth can impact in many communities. "We (adults) know what is best for them." This same attitude applies to the poor and other disenfranchised until they can organize a critical mass.

3. Youth with multiple personal social-behavior barriers can benefit from such an experience, however, it related more to being in an accepting environment than the skill development orientation of the program. Those youth who have previously participated in community affairs, those who have high concerns about conditions in their community and those who are intellectually curious may respond most favorably to the didactics of a community problem solving workshop. The challenge is to keep program content flexible and supplemented with events such as recreation, a cultural arts fair and initiative exercises to temper the more "school-like" content. A diverse population accented this need and would be recommended for the future.

4. There must be an organizational commitment which seeks to do this style of citizenship education by key administrators in an organization--whether on a state or local basis, extension service or neighborhood home. Any program focus on creating more political awareness and skills to create more effective participation of new audiences in the community can become a political football within an organization or within the community, i.e., when fuding becomes a question (youth did not pay to attend this program).

5. It became clear that many more youth and adults could benefit from a similar experience. The same format seems operative, adapted to the work schedules of people in a community. Two local communities did local youth projects using the Leadership Workshop for Community Development model with success. The traditional 4-H Leadership Camp adopted the part of the model which had youth identify problems while still in the community; they now use "live" adult reaction panels. A counselor summarized

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[3] (Mitchell, 1975, p. 38)

the Leadership Workshop for Community Development in the following poem:

They came from different places
They all had different faces
They came to get things done
And getting things done they did.

Wonderful ideas they had,
Wonderful ideas they shared.
Now they are all aware,
Of the things they can do.

They have met new people and friends.
Now that things have come to an end,
Let us all say thanks
And hope this will happen again.

Alvin Watson
Counselor, LWCD
Des Moines, Iowa
1974

An adult project was conducted in Fort Dodge adopting the model of the Leadership Workshop for Community Development.

Conclusion

The LWCD project focused on training people for community participation. The process is not only one of giving people information about group process and community influence strategies, but it is one of giving people a "support system" which can provide encouragement and additional technical assistance if needed. It is a process of altering concepts of reality about groups and organizational dynamics by "breaking it down." It is a process--most importantly--of changing people's self-concept about their "importance" and "value" to themselves and others. A training approach which combines these processes may have a greater chance of developing more participation of the young, poor, non-white and disenfranchised in community decision-making.

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AUDIO-CASSETTES FOR USE BY 4-H AGENTS IN TRAINING PARAPROFESSIONALS RESPONSIBLE FOR VOLUNTEER PROGRAMS

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Extension specialists in the Land-Grant Universities have long assumed the responsibility for in-service training of Extension 4-H professionals in recruiting volunteers and managing volunteer programs. For more than 70 years the Land-Grant Universities have reached large numbers of 4-H youth at the county level by use of volunteers under the direction of professionals. In 1973 a 4-H paraprofessional position, the Program Assistant, was added in many states. Program Assistants were directed to increase the numbers of youth in the 4-H program, and thus to assume responsibility for a great deal of volunteer recruitment and support.

PARAPROFESSIONAL TRAINING NEEDS

Difficult problems are often associated with the assimilation of a new position into an ongoing organization. Decisions must be made about the ways in which the new position holders will be used, the levels of proficiency desired, and the responsibility of the organization in developing the desired skill levels. Responses to these problems are related to the type of person employed.

In Ohio the educational level of the Program Assistants averages 13 years and ranges from 10th grade through the Master's degree. More than 60 percent have been 4-H members, and half have been club officers. Their prior experience has frequently left them with outdated concepts of 4-H programming and volunteerism. Thus, most of the new Program Assistant position holders need training in recruiting and working with volunteers.

Training policy for Extension Program Assistants varies by state. In Ohio, paraprofessional training is provided by county, and occasionally, area professionals. County professionals are trained by state and area staff. Often county 4-H professionals are young and inexperienced and have a high rate of turnover. They have many educational needs, and the amount of in-service training available to them with respect to volunteerism is limited by their need for many types of training. Frequently, young county 4-H professionals have little knowledge of the managerial aspects of a volunteer program, and their in-service education generally has been concentrated on other areas.

Most training provided to Program Assistants has been on a one-to-one basis by their supervising professionals. This is workable when professionals possess subject matter useful to the paraprofessionals and convey it accurately. The training available with respect to the volunteer program has been widely varied. Its quality has depended upon the 4-H professional's knowledge level, the time available, the professional's skill in teaching, his or her interest, and the relationship between the professional and paraprofessional.

Extension philosophy for its clientele has been to help people help themselves. As an example, research has been carried out in the universities to determine economically feasible agricultural practices. Extension specialists have put the findings into understandable and usable forms for local agents and lay clientele. In its ideal form this delivery system has channeled information from researcher to Extension specialist to agent for application by clientele.

This system is not well implemented with respect to much of the training available to paraprofessionals. A prime example is in information about volunteerism. Little research about volunteerism has come out of Land-Grant Universities. The research which exists is not integrated or developed into a useful guide for the practitioner. Because there is so little empirical information, most volunteer program behavior exists as an art, not a science. Specialists who wish to give leadership have a meager research base to draw upon. When the specialist is restricted to working with professionals, even this information is limited by each professional's filtering process in communication with the paraprofessional.

Alternative paraprofessional training strategies that take better advantage of the Extension delivery system are required to develop the skills of paraprofessionals. Methods which make use of the best research available and educational guidance by Extension specialists need to be integrated with local training. There is a need for cost-effective training which brings the best available information to each paraprofessional at the lowest possible cost; for time-effective training which can be conducted using minimum time of both agent and paraprofessional; and for human resource development training which results in a paraprofessional who is equipped to effectively fulfill volunteer program responsibilities.

A possible supplemental alternative to conventional county training is the development by specialists of a basic, sequenced volunteer curriculum for agents to use in training paraprofessionals. These lessons can be delivered by individualized audio cassette instruction. This instruction can be accompanied by training by the professional which builds on the common base generated. Using audio cassettes assists an inexperienced professional to learn along with the paraprofessional.

Such a lesson series has been developed in Ohio for the 4-H paraprofessionals. Use of this type of training helps compensate for resource constraints such as policy restricting specialist contact with paraprofessionals, limitations in agent training strengths, frequent turnover, and wide dispersal of 4-H paraprofessionals throughout the state.

CASSETTE DEVELOPMENT

The training materials were developed and put into service by working with a broad representation of members from the Extension delivery system. The initial strategy decision to use audio cassettes to reach program assistants was made in the state training office in Ohio. The implementation of that strategy required use and reinforcement of linkages between Federal Extension Service specialists, specialists in several states, Supervisors, Area Agents, county agents, and paraprofessionals.

Audio cassettes were innovative for training Program Assistants and potentially expensive to develop. Limited amounts of dollars were available in Ohio Extension, thus additional funding sources were sought. The Ohio Bell Telephone Company was contacted and expressed interest in developing video cassettes, audio cassettes, and printed training materials jointly in return for a comparison of their cost-effectiveness in employee training. However, they, too, had dollar constraints and were forced to withdraw.

The 4-H Foundation in Washington, D.C. responded to a funding request by providing $3,000 in September, 1975. In return two Ohio specialists, one from 4-H and the author, were requested to lead a workshop on training 4-H paraprofessionals at the 4-H Center in Washington. The audio cassettes were introduced at this workshop. Four-H monies permitted initial development of the audio cassettes.

There still remained a need to evaluate their effectiveness. A Special Needs Grant in the amount of $27,217 was given by the Federal Extension Service in April, 1976 to determine the cost-effectiveness of the training series. The long range objective of the evaluation was to provide information for decision making about training modes to be employed for paraprofessionals and professionals in the Extension Service. Three additional states, Virginia, Nebraska, and Iowa were included under this grant. They and Ohio formed a consortium for final content development, testing, and evaluation of the materials. A fifth state, Massachusetts, joined the consortium after the 4-H paraprofessional training workshop in Washington.

The first step in actual cassette development was taken prior to the 4-H Foundation grant. An Ohio committee was chosen to assist during the entire process from content selection through evaluation of the materials. Eighteen people served initially on the advisory committee: 4-H agents, a Home Economics agent, Area 4-H agents, paraprofessionals and state specialists. This committee decided upon volunteer program management as the cassette subject matter.

Knowledge about volunteerism was extensively researched as the basis for content of the training. This was accomplished by a thorough search of the literature and contact with people active in volunteerism. The graduate assistant working on the project was a mature woman with an extensive background in a volunteer fund raising organization. Her actual experience made a major contribution to the subject matter content. The experiences of 4-H agents and program assistants whose work with volunteers was superior were also collected during county visits. Agents and program assistants were asked to share their ideas and knowledge as a means of keeping the material valid and realistic. A further contribution was made by cassettes taped during actual county planning and recruiting meetings.

The number of people who advised on the project grew to 38. Meetings to verify content and increase its acceptability were held with 4-H specialists and all 4-H agents in two areas of the state. Troublesome words were eliminated, concepts clarified, and potential "turn offs" discovered. By these processes content was based on both research and practice and was presented at the level of actual county experience.

The last major revision occurred after meeting with specialists from the other three states and the Federal Extension Service. The group at this meeting decided that an Agent's Guide was needed to support and define the agent's role in training with the audio cassettes.

CASSETTE FORMAT

During the period of content development other important decisions were being made about format. Valid content represents only one of the qualities needed by effective training materials. The format for their presentation and use is vital to acceptance.

Audio cassettes are extremely versatile and can be used in many innovative ways. Tapping this versatility and other important strengths increases the acceptability of audio cassettes by the three groups of people most involved in paraprofessional training: learners, teachers and funders.

Learners find these advantages in audio cassettes. They may:

- select the time and frequency of use
- listen more than once
- listen in an environment of their own choosing
- learn in spite of lack of reading and writing skills

Teachers like audio cassettes because they are:

- self paced
- useful for many kinds of subject matter and different lengths of presentation
- able to be keyed to local people, events, etc.
- credible because local keying can be combined with specialist authority
- simple to operate

People responsible for funding like audio cassettes because they are:

- low in cost
- standard in format with no problems in compatibility of cassette and player
- quickly and inexpensively duplicated using high speed equipment
- easily stored

In short, audio cassettes make possible individualized instruction by providing an uncomplicated, inexpensive playback system which may be used at the learner's discretion. The advantages listed more than compensate for their disadvantages which are:

- difficulty in locating a specific section of content
- problems in overdriving speakers on playback equipment to get sufficient volume for large groups
- need for inital production on reels to allow editing, necessitating subsequent transfer to cassette format

After careful consideration of their advantages and disadvantages, the following format was developed for audio cassette use in 4-H paraprofessional training.

Two related segments are presented on each of six audio tapes. The first segment is a dramatized experience about one aspect of the 4-H volunteer program. After listening to the first segment, the learner is to turn the tape recorder off and complete the accompanying work sheet. When this is done, the learner is to turn the recorder on again and listen to the second segment. In the second segment, suggested answers are given to the work sheets. Each cassette has a story, music, an opportunity for activity in completing worksheets, and authoritative answers to questions. Both sides of each tape are the same to facilitate use.

The cassettes are mounted inside the cover of an attractive vinyl notebook. The entire package of notebook, six audio-cassette tapes, and related teaching materials form a training module. Scripts for each cassette are included in the module, along with worksheets, an Agent's Guide, an appendix, and a glossary of terms. The scripts and worksheets are a different pastel color for each tape and are indexed by color and name of tape. The notebook has a green logo on a royal blue background, and the logo is used on each script and worksheet. The attractiveness of the art work and colors aid in module acceptance.

Quality of sound also influences acceptability of audio cassette training. Experimental tapes were cut using Extension personnel. However, their reading proved too stilted. University theater students were selected to make the final tapes, though one of them had some difficulty in reading. (For future tapes, students of radio will be used.) The tapes were cut and edited in the university radio studio, producing generally excellent sound reproduction.

CONTENT

The title of the module, "The Volunteer Community," reflects one of its underlying themes. Emphasis is given throughout the module to building networks of people whose relationships underpin the entire volunteer program. The techniques and ideas suggested in network building are based on principles of organization and community.

Another basic framework is management, especially decision-making and problem solving. Specifically, in tape one the process of goal setting and strategies for reaching recruitment goals are outlined. In tape two considering alternative recruitment strategies and choice of those most appropriate are illustrated. Tapes three, four and five discuss alternative methods for contacting, retaining and recognizing volunteers. In tape six ways to evaluate are described as means of improving program, documenting results, and assuring support. In this way management concepts are presented in a specific, applied form.

Each tape has as its theme a basic process in the 4-H volunteer program. These are: #1 Planning recruiting; #2 Implementing recruiting; #3 Contacting potential volunteers; #4 Retaining volunteers; #5 Recognizing volunteers; and #6 Program feedback. Many ways are suggested in each tape for carrying out the process under discussion.

The scripts for each tape are preceded by learning objectives which capsulize content. For example in the tape on planning, the learning objectives are that the learner will be able to:

1. Plan an organized recruitment campaign which is:
    - initiated by an analysis of the situation
    - realistic in goal setting
    - controlled by a schedule
2. Plan a volunteer program which includes:
    - using volunteers from many backgrounds in diverse capacities
    - conducting awareness efforts
    - retaining ongoing volunteers
    - using the resources of people in the community
    - combining ongoing and special efforts

After reading these objectives, the learner knows what he or she is expected to be able to learn to do and at the same time has an overview of the content before becoming involved in specifics.

The scripts are accurate copies of the content on the tapes. Learners can read as they listen to reinforce the learning process. Points of emphasis in the tapes are clearly outlined in the scripts, and the learner can underline especially important concepts or ideas. The scripts help overcome the cassette disadvantage of inability to find a particular point because specific ideas can be easily located.

Each worksheet amplifies the content in the first part of the tape. It initiates an inductive learning process in which information about the county or local volunteer situation is developed. For example, Worksheet 2 on implementing contains these questions:

1. What are the characteristics of 4-H volunteers in your county?

    Sex; Race; Age; Special Skills; Educational Level; 4-H Background; Length of Service; Occupation.

2. What organizations and people other than those listed on the tape could be used in your county to help you get the names of prospective volunteers?

3. What are the best months for a special 4-H volunteer recruitment campaign in your county?

4. What are the advantages and disadvantages of organizing a special recruiting group in your county?

5. List personal qualities that the more successful volunteers in your county have.

6. How can you best conduct an awareness campaign in your county?

From answers to these questions and those provided by the second section of the tape, the learner goes on to develop and use activities to conduct a recruitment campaign. In this way the learner provides and acts on relevant content. He or she makes behavior changes, the real test of learning.

Additional materials for learning experiences are found in the appendix. These include examples of volunteer job descriptions, a position description worksheet, a volunteer application, evaluation formats, suggestions for teaching volunteers and an Extension Service publication, "Developing 4-H Curricula for Training Volunteers." These materials are intended for use in expanding the cassette content. They provide illustrations of ways concepts can be given reality.

LEARNING EXPERIENCES

The module was planned as a guide to inquiry. It was assumed that both 4-H professionals and paraprofessionals have varied personal experiences which will contribute to the knowledge gained. Both the professional and the program assistant will be involved in an inductive learning experience in which new ideas are developed for use in the county. The professional's role will be that of guiding the learning process, assigning learning experiences, highlighting valuable ideas, summarizing, and relating different ideas to each other. As the last step in each lesson, the professional's role will be to lead the decision-making necessary for applying the new ideas developed to the county.

As with any teaching method, this module will be most effective in changing behavior if it is used when the learner is at an appropriate stage of readiness. The program assistant's work experience must be adequate before he or she is expected to learn how to conduct a comprehensive volunteer program.

The professional must be familiar with the module content before assigning it to the program assistant. The materials included are complex, and not always easily recalled. Familiarity with the concepts will help the professional give better back-up teaching.

Learning will be most effective when the cassettes are assigned individually. Enough time should be spent on each cassette to allow for reflecting, completing the work sheets, and internalizing the concepts.

Two types of learning experiences can occur with cassettes. A passive experience results if the learner merely listens. On the other hand, if the user does something in addition to listening, active learning occurs.

To get the most benefit from the cassettes, the learner must be active rather than passive. Ways of doing this include:

1. Preparation for Listening

   Discussing the format of the module and the content of each tape before using it helps make learning active.

   For example, talking over volunteer recruitment in the specific county, or ways the professional and program assistant view their roles can help develop positive attitudes toward the materials. The content on the tapes may not be exactly the way the volunteer program is carried out in the county, and a simple statement such as "Okay, now let's listen to the tapes and see how what is said fits in with us," gives positive reinforcement.

2. Completing the Work Sheets

   Thinking through and recording answers to each applicable question on the work sheets helps make learning more active. It is suggested that the actual writing be done on copies of the originals found in the module. The work sheets can be completed by the program assistant or the professional and program assistant, whichever is most suitable to the situation. Eliminating the work sheets may be a temptation in order to save time, but they're important links which give meaning to the second part of the tapes. Writing down answers on paper brings feelings, thoughts, and ideas into the open. And, the process involved in finding answers helps make the concepts useful to a specific county.

3. Feedback After Listening

   After the user has listened to the tapes and the work sheets have been completed, it is critical that some discussion between the program assistant and professional takes place. This provides an opportunity for feedback concerning perceptions and feelings about the module and its implementation. Specific application of the tapes to a county can be made at this time.

4. Relistening

   A helpful way to increase retention is relistening and discussing all or some of the tapes from time to time. Or, it may be useful to listen to the summary at the end of a tape. It is surprising how much can be missed with only one playing.

The role of the professional is crucial to complete training. By using the module, the paraprofessional can become familiar with volunteer program "how to's." However, the most effective audio cassette instruction is accompanied and followed by supplementary training which builds on the common base generated by the individualized instruction. With both types of training, the program assistant will have the needed tools to implement an effective volunteer program.

The Agent's Guide provides the 4-H professional with several kinds of assistance for use in training the program assistants. The Guide contains six sections, one for each lesson. Each section is divided into:

1) Generalizations
2) Experiences
3) Materials Needed
4) Topics for Discussion
5) Decisions to Make, and
6) Application

To illustrate these elements, one is taken from each section of the guide. The generalizations from Planning - #1 are:

- An organized recruitment program results in greater numbers of volunteers than unorganized efforts.
- Using the resources of community people in recruitment results in a greater number of volunteers than using only paid staff.
- An organized recruitment program is initiated by an analysis of the situation, is realistic in goal setting, and is guided by a plan.
- A recruitment campaign is part of an organized recruitment program, is an intensified effort, and is controlled by a schedule.

Two of the "Experiences" from Implementing - #2 are:

- Think about desirable characteristics for volunteers in your county, different types of 4-H volunteer jobs possible, and ways community people can be involved.

- Develop a form for listing potential volunteers' names, addresses, telephone numbers, volunteer job asked to do and alternatives, acceptance, or refusal and reason.

The"Materials Needed" for Contacting - #3 are:

- Information about the 4-H program useful to recruiters.
- Examples of materials used in previous recruitment (radio spots, sign up sheets, handouts, letters, record sheets, etc.).
- Information about the role playing technique.

Some of the "Topics for Discussion" suggested in Retaining - #4 are:

- What would be the advantages of using volunteer job descriptions in the county? Disadvantages?
- What kind of 4-H volunteer training are we doing? What subjects are included?
- How well do we use methods for teaching adults?
- What efforts are we making to develop positive relationships in the county volunteer network?
- What opportunities for change in responsibilities are available to county 4-H volunteers?
- Are 4-H volunteers evaluating their own performance on the basis of their job descriptions?

The "Decisions to Make" suggested for Recognizing - #5 are:

- What kind of 4-H volunteer recognition should we use?
- Do we need to improve our network of "recognizers" for 4-H volunteers?
- Do we need to improve staff relationships with volunteers?
- What is an appropriate division of county recognition responsibility?

The "Application" section for Evaluation - #6 contains these two behaviors:

- Use of activities which effectively evaluate county 4-H volunteer program and volunteer performance.
- Assignment of evaluation activities to professional and/or program assistant and selected volunteers.

The professional selects the generalizations, experiences, topics for discussion, and decisions to make which are most appropriate for the local county as he or she guides the learning process.

Those professionals having limited organizational experience or who are new to the job will find use of the module, with assistance from the Agent's Guide, a simpler process than if they had to be the main source of information. All professionals should find the materials helpful in providing the basis for learning experiences.

LEGITIMIZATION

Even well done materials will be used only if they are entered into the Extension system using appropriate channels. In order to develop support, a large group of Ohio Extension personnel chose the subject matter area and assisted throughout the materials development. A four state committee gave final approval to the content. Its members spearheaded module use in their states and supervised its local evaluation.

National 4-H Foundation and Federal Extension Service Special Needs funding was secured, and the module was introduced at a national paraprofessional training meeting in Washington. Subsequently, manufacture and promotion were taken over by the 4-H Council. The module was also introduced at a regional Extension staff development workshop. The present paper represents its introduction to a nationwide university audience.

In Ohio supervisory and administrative personnel were kept informed about the progress of the materials as they were being developed. At the time the materials were completed, Area Supervisors were given individual demonstrations and asked to help plan dissemination and evaluation. Area Supervisors indicated the counties likely to retain Program Assistants after a funding change in January, 1977. They then assisted in drawing a random sample to receive cassette training. Four-H professionals in each of the counties selected for the sample were given local training responsibility. They are using the cassette series to train their own program assistants.

The legitimization process can be traced from state to federal, regional, area, and local Extension personnel and to others who were interested. Their awareness and support of the materials and process helped make creation and use of the "4-H Volunteer Community" possible.

SUCCESS?

The strengths of the Extension delivery system have been utilized in preparation of this module. Specialists at the university level have worked closely with national, area, and local Extension personnel in developing training materials for county paraprofessionals. The specialists have taken ultimate responsibility for developing understandable and effective materials for use by local agents in training 4-H program assistants. The specialists have used research findings, coupling it with data from the most effective local practice, in an attempt to develop valid content. They have also taken all steps possible to legitimize the training format and process in order to assure its acceptance.

The next question is, did it work? Is the training effective? Will more volunteers be recruited and retained in counties where the audio cassette training materials were used? At present a five state evaluation of these materials is being conducted to answer these questions. The final report will be completed in 1978.

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TRAINING VOLUNTEERS FOR SERVICE IN THE JUVENILE AND CRIMINAL JUSTICE SYSTEMS

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Dramatically increasing interest during the present decade in the juvenile and criminal justice systems has led to both a groundswell of persons desiring to give their services to the systems voluntarily and to a gradual increase in the number of justice systems administrators willing to use such services. These phenomena have occurred nationwide and have been encouraged by such federal legislation as the Omnibus Crime Control and Safe Streets Act of 1968 as Amended, and the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act of 1974. Additional encouragement has come from professional organizations such as the American Correctional Association, the National Center for Voluntary Action, and the National Information Center on Volunteerism.

In Virginia the growth of interest in giving volunteer services and of interest in accepting such services has received official sanction and stimulation from a variety of sources. Notable among these are the Virginia Council on Criminal Justice, which, using LEAA blck-grant funds, has made numerous grants, through the Division of Justice and Crime Prevention, to fund volunteer programs, including both training and administration components.

Subsequent to the initial support shown by the Council on Criminal Justice, Governor Mills E. Godwin, Jr., created the State Office on Volunteerism, by the action cited below:

EXECUTIVE ORDER NUMBER TWENTY-FIVE (75) AS AMENDED

STATE OFFICE ON VOLUNTEERISM

By virtue of the authority vested in me as Governor, I hereby establish the State Office on Volunteerism, within the Division of State Planning and Community Affairs.

A. State Office on Volunteerism

1. Purpose: This Executive Order is issued to establish the State Office on Volunteerism to encourage and enhance volunteerism in the Commonwealth through the concentrated and coordinated use of Federal, state, regional, and local public and private resources.

2. Administration: The Office shall be headed by a State Coordinator on Volunteerism. The Office will report administratively to the Secretary of Administration and Finance through the Director of the Division of State Planning and Community Affairs. A member of the Governor's immediate staff shall provide programmatic direction to the Office on Volunteerism.

3. Duties: The Office shall perform those activities necessary to encourage and enhance volunteerism within the Commonwealth, which includes:

   a. Collection and dissemination of information on volunteerism;

   b. Assistance and support to volunteer-oriented groups, state or local; as determined to be in the best interest of the Commonwealth;

   c. Liaison and coordination of federal, state, regional, and local volunteer efforts;

   d. Foster and promote training for volunteer directors, staff, and volunteers; and

   e. Fostering and promotion of the recognition of the accomplishments of volunteers and volunteerism and their accomplishments within the Commonwealth.

4. Resources: The Office shall, to the extent feasible, make use of the fiscal and staff resources available within the Division of State Planning and Community Affairs, and work through and with existing federal, state, regional, and local agencies and with private groups. The Director of the Division of State Planning and Community Affairs may employ such personnel and contract for such services as may be required to perform the duties of the State Office on Volunteerism.

B. Advisory Committee

1. Appointments: The Governor shall appoint the members of the Advisory Committee to the State Office on Volunteerism.

2. Composition: The Advisory Committee shall consist of fifteen (15) members and the regular term of office for each member shall be two years. The members shall - (a) have knowledge, skills, and expertise in volunteerism and shall be representative of the public and private segments of the state involved in volunteer programs; and - (b) elect from their number a chairman for a one year term in such a manner as they may determine.

3. Duties: The Advisory Committee shall advise the Division of State Planning and Community Affairs, State Office on Volunteerism on the methods, techniques, and procedures to accomplish the duties of the Office.

Given under my hand and the Seal of the Commonwealth of Virginia, this 7th day of November, 1975.

(signed) Mills E. Godwin
Governor

More recently, and most significantly, the Virginia General Assembly in its 1977 session amended the Code of Virginia as follows:

Be it enacted by the General Assembly of Virginia:

1. That the Code of Virginia is amended by adding in Title 2.1 a chapter numbered 32, containing sections numbered 2.1-422 through 2.1-427, as follows:

CHAPTER 32
VIRGINIA STATE GOVERNMENT VOLUNTEERS ACT

2.1-422. Declaration of legislative intent; short title-Since the spirit of volunteerism has long animated generations of Americans to give of their time and abilities to help others, the Commonwealth would be wise to make use of volunteers in State service wherever practically possible. Effective use of volunteers in State service, however, requires that State agencies be provided guidelines for the development of volunteer programs and the utilization of volunteers. The General Assembly intends by this chapter to assure that people of Virginia may derive optimal benefit from volunteers, and that the time and talents of volunteers in State service may be put to their best use.

This chapter may be cited as the Virginia State Government Volunteers Act.

2.1-423. Definitions.-As used in this chapter, the following terms shall have the following meanings unless another may clearly be inferred from the content:

1. "Volunteer" shall mean any person who, of his own free will, provides goods or services, without any financial gain, to any agency, instrumentality or political subdivision of the Commonwealth;
2. "Regular-service volunteer" shall mean any person engaged in specific voluntary service activities on an ongoing or continuous basis;
3. "Occasional-service volunteer" shall mean any person who provides a one-time or occasional voluntary service;
4. "Material donor" shall mean any person who, without financial gain, provides funds, materials, employment, or opportunities for clients of agencies, instrumentalities, or political subdivisions of the Commonwealth;
5. "Department" shall mean and include all departments and divisions enumerated in 2.1-1 of the Code and local agencies under the jurisdiction or supervision thereof.

2.1-424. Scope of chapter; status of volunteers.-A. Every department, through its executive head, is hereby authorized to develop volunteer programs and accept the services of volunteers, including regular-service volunteers, occasional-service volunteers, or material donors, to assist in programs carried out or administered by that department.

B. Volunteers recruited, trained, or accepted by any department shall, to the extent of their voluntary service, be exempt from all provisions of law relating to State employment, hours of work, rate of compensation, leave time, and employee benefits except those enumerated in or consistent with 2.1-426. Volunteers shall, however, at all times comply with applicable work rules.

C. Every department utilizing the services of volunteers is hereby authorized to provide volunteers with such incidental reimbursements as are consistent with the provisions of 2.1-426, including transportation costs, lodging, and subsistence, as the department deems appropriate to assist volunteers in performing their duties.

2.1-425. Responsibilities of departments.-Each department utilizing the services of volunteers shall:

1. Enlist the services of the Virginia State Office of Volunteerizm to assist in the development of volunteer programs.

2. Take such actions as are necessary and appropriate to develop meaningful opportunities for volunteers involved in its programs and to improve public services;

3. Develop written rules governing the recruitment, screening, training, responsibility, utilization and supervision of volunteers;

4. Take such actions as are necessary to ensure that volunteers and paid staff understand their respective duties and responsibilities, their relationship to each other, and their respective roles in fulfilling the objectives of their department;

5. Take such actions as are necessary and appropriate to ensure a receptive climate for citizen volunteers;

6. Provide for the recognition of volunteers who have offered exceptional service to the Commonwealth; and

7. Recognize prior volunteer service as partial fulfillment of State employment requirements for training and experience established by the Division of Personnel.

2.1-426. Volunteer benefits.-A. Meals may be furnished without charge to regular service volunteers, provided scheduled work assignments extend over an established meal period. Meals may be furnished without charge to occasional-service volunteers at the discretion of the department's executive head.

B. Lodging, if available, may be furnished temporarily, at no charge, to regular-service volunteers.

C. Transportation reimbursement may be furnished those volunteers whose presence is determined to be necessary to the department. Rates or amounts of such reimbursement shall not exceed those provided in 14.1-5 of the Code of Virginia. Volunteers may utilize State vehicles in the performance of their duties, subject to those rules and regulations governing use of State vehicles by paid staff.

D. Liability insurance may be provided by the department utilizing their services both to regular-service and occasional-service volunteers to the same extent as may be provided by the department to its paid staff. Volunteers in State service shall enjoy the protection of the Commonwealth's sovereign immunity to the same extent as paid staff.

2.1-427. Filing of reports; required information.-A. Each department shall include in its annual statement filed subject to 2.1-2 of the Code of Virginia:

1. Information relating to the total number, location, and duties of all volunteers, including regular-service volunteers, occasional-service volunteers, and material donors; and

2. Information relating to the total number of annual hours of service provided to the department by all volunteers, including regular-service volunteers, occasional-service volunteers, and material donors.

B. Prior to the development of any new programs or presentation of any budget requests by or on behalf of any department, efforts should be made to explore avenues of community involvement through the use of volunteers. Each budget request made to the General Assembly by or on behalf of any department shall be accompanied by a volunteer impact statement outlining the number and types of services which volunteers will provide during the budgetary period and the fiscal savings occasioned by such services.

The foregoing background information is offered to illustrate the growth of volunteerism in the justice systems, to demonstrate official recognition and encouragement of volunteer services in activities long considered the exclusive concern of public agencies, and to put into perspective Virginia Commonwealth University's current training programs for both volunteers and justice systems personnel who work with volunteers.

As can be noted from Governor Godwin's Executive Order and from the legislation cited, the need for training has been officially recognized. Earlier, applications for funds made to the Council on Criminal Justice frequently set forth the needs for training programs.

This is so because in Virginia, and probably elsewhere as well, the growth of each group - volunteers anxious to serve and administrators willing to use their services - has made apparent pronounced needs for specialized training and education services for both, with the realities of the situation usually dictating that such services must be comprehensive, thorough, intense, brief, and often on site.

It is obvious that Continuing Education, by definition, is ideally suited to provide individually designed institutes, seminars and workshops, as needed, on site, and meeting the other criteria noted, as well. Additionally, training of volunteers through accredited Continuing Education activities offers other advantages e.g. the legitimacy of the academic cachet, given for successful participation in university-based programs unhampered by rigid entrance criteria and drawn-out classroom instruction.

Such activities allow able individuals with limited formal academic achievements to participate in Continuing Education activities designed to impart the specialized knowledge and skills necessary for anyone who wishes to work successfully in the justice systems on equal footing with persons holding advanced degrees in disciplines unrelated to the specific subject area of the activity. The housewife, skilled worker, student, laborer, etc., may participate on equal footing with certified, credentialed professionals, to the mutual advantage and enrichment of both, and learn their roles as volunteers in one of the justice systems, both of which are largely uncharted ground for the majority of aspiring volunteers.

Sensitive to the increased needs for training opportunities for persons on both sides of voluntary activity, the School of Social Work of Virginia Commonwealth University, through its Department of Continuing Education, currently offers a variety of continuing education experiences for persons interested in or actively involved in volunteer service in the juvenile and criminal justice systems, and for paid personnel using or supervising volunteer services.

Using institute, seminar or workshop formats, and sometimes but not always using consultants, each activity is individually designed to meet the needs of specified groups in specific sponsoring agencies, precluding any possibility of "canned" programs.

While the School of Social Work and the University have a variety of audio-visual material to draw on, frequently special materials for a given setting must be prepared. Evaluation instruments, usually testing for individual gains in terms of program content, have to be designed for each activity.

Representative activities completed in recent months include training Juvenile and Domestic Relations Court volunteers in the juvenile justice process and in interviewing techniques, training volunteers in jails and in adult courts in the criminal justice process and in interviewing techniques and training VISTA volunteers in the justice systems.

Projected for 1977-78 are three institutes to be held in different urban areas of the state, to train volunteers in systems linkage in the criminal justice system. Funded by an ACTION grant, these institutes are designed to broaden the volunteer's conceptual field to include the individual offender, the offense, the victim(s), law enforcement, the judiciary and corrections.

Experience has shown that university-based programs of continuing education are highly appropriate to offer training not only to volunteers but to administrators of volunteer programs and to staff working with volunteers, offering, as they do, professional-level knowledge of the specific service area in which given volunteers will work combined with the detachment of professional education.

An example of a specific program may be of interest.

When the School of Social Work is requested to provide Continuing Education services to an agency planning to design and implement a voluntary service program, the Coordinator of Continuing Education in the Justice Systems (funded by Division of Justice and Crime Prevention Action Grant 76-A3412) meets with the responsible administrators and offers the following outline as one suggestion of how to begin:

1. Conduct Needs Assessment

    1. Are volunteers needed to

        ...assist exsiting staff?
        ...supplement staff efforts?
        ...perform jobs for which there is no staff?

    2. Does adequate supervision for a volunteer program exist?

3. If not, can adequate supervision be obtained and budgeted?

4. Can administrative approval for use of volunteers be obtained?

5. Can existing staff be trained to accept and work with volunteers?

II. Design Program

1. Spell out how many volunteers are needed to provide which services, when.

2. Write job descriptions
   ...listing qualifications
   ...listing duties and responsibilities
   ...listing working hours
   ...listing period of commitment
   ...listing chain-of-command.

III. Recruit

1. Consider volunteer volunteers.

2. Personal appearances before groups.

3. Individual contacts.

4. Appeals to specialized groups and organizations.

5. Media.

IV. Screen

1. Through use of applications.

2. Through personal interviews.

3. Through reference checks.

4. Through police checks.

V. Train

1. Train staff in utilization of volunteers
   ...reassure as to replacement fears
   ...reassure as to status fears

2. Train volunteers
   ...in role and function of the agency
   ...organizational structure of agency
   ...rules and policies of agency
   and all applicable laws
   ...role and function of individual volunteers

VI. Supervision

1. Spell out to the volunteer and to the appropriate staff member exactly what supervision involves, the persons involved, and the purposes of supervision.

VII. Records and Evaluation

1. Design and implement a plan to keep records of volunteer service.

2. Design and implement a plan to evaluate volunteer service.

The outline is not and does not pretend to be an all-inclusive formula for the design and implementation of a successful volunteer program. It does provide a useful checklist and can be adapted to the special and specific needs of the agency requesting service.

After consideration of the outline, and its adaptation to the agency, Continuing Education plays its major role in Phase V, which is the training component.

As has already been mentioned, each Continuing Education activity is individually designed, and while each has some commonalities, each has some differences.

The role and function of each agency must be considered. Its concept of a volunteer program must be taken into account. The climate in which voluntary activities will take place, the characteristics and personalities of participants and prospective participants - all must be considered.

And the specifics of the situation must be included.

For example, the Code of Virginia contains a little-known provision which has the potential of seriously damaging if not completely wrecking any volunteer program operating in the correctional system.

In Chapter 10, Crimes Against The Administration of Justice," Article 7, "Escape of Prisoners." states in section 18.2-474:

> Delivery of Articles to prisoners.-
>
> No person shall wilfully in any manner deliver, or attempt to deliver, to any prisoner confined under authority of the Commonwealth of Virginia, or of any political subdivision thereof, any article of any nature whatsoever, without first securing the permission of the person whose charge such prisoner is, and who may in his discretion grant or refuse permission. Any person violating this section shall be guilty of a Class 1 misdemeanor.

The example given is just one example of one phase of the training which is necessary for acceptable and successful volunteer programs in the justice systems.

There is every indication that public concern about and interest in the justice systems, those enormous consumers of public funds, will continue and will grow, and it would seem that colleges and universities, which exist to provide training, education and service, have an inherent duty to assist society by providing the training and education services which are manifestly needed.

APPLYING MANAGEMENT OF CHANGE TECHNIQUES TO IMPLEMENT AN INTERNSHIP PROGRAM IN A TRADITIONAL UNIVERSITY

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Developing an internship program in a traditional institution of higher education may require as much skillful preparation and political knowledge as proposing a bill to Congress. Colleges and universities are institutions where survival depends on vast amounts of monies from disparate interest groups; where actual institutional goals are unclearly defined, where values and norms are in flux; and where staff and faculty idiosyncracies are indulged and competitiveness is encouraged. Although rigid bureaucratic hierarchies prevail, they are often shrouded and hidden by protectors operating behind closed doors.

In this paper, I will present guidelines for developing a change strategy which have been useful in instituting the Service Learning Internship Program (SLIP) at the University of Vermont. A case history is also provided to illustrate various aspects of the change concepts in operation.

Whoever tries to initiate internship programs must recognize the complexity of their institutions. Typically, the institutions are composed of a multitude of autonomous and interconnected divisions and departments. The university must be viewed as being an open system and analyzed according to the interrelationship and interdependence of its staff and faculty members, the student population and the outside environment.[1] The university as an open system is a dynamic institution where one change in one subsystem can cause change in other subsystems. Because the university is not closed or static, it is particularly vulnerable to external and internal pressures.

The academic and administrative offices of a university are expected to work together in harmony to produce a desirable education for a college student. Internally, philosophical differences and a hushed competitiveness inhibit the sharing of trade secrets. Often the administrative staffs and the academic divisions are not fully cognizant of what is really happening and how they work together. The student graduate remains the only common denominator of the myriad of independent offices.

Adaptability to numerous external influences determines whether a university is to remain solvent or whether a university dissipates into the archives of higher education. Student, private and public support monies are allocated to those colleges which support specific interests. To stay alive, a college continually bends, bursts open and re-establishes itself. Prevailing economic trends, changes in societal values, population factors, community and student demands determine a never ending redefinition of a university's mission.

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[1] The Concept of open system is described in Wendell C. French and Cecil H. Bell, Jr., Organization Development. Englewood Cliffs, Prentice Hall Inc., 1973, p. 74-83.

In summary, because a university is an open system, it is subject to internal and external pressures. While some of these pressures may appear obvious and unrelated, their impact on developing internship programs is substantial in that they form the arena in which change occurs.

In presenting the strategy and the case history, specific management of change terms are utilized. The terms are defined to assist the reader in understanding the strategy.

DEFINITION OF CHANGE TERMS

Five components of change adopted from Philip Kotler's "The Elements of Social Action" are used to provide a framework for the management of change.[2] [Kotler, 1972]

1. The Change Agent is the individual or organization whose primary mission is to advance a cause or change.

2. The Change Problem is the underlying need which has been identified to which the change is addressed and will resolve.

3. The Change (or Cause) is the social objective or undertaking that the change agent believes will provide some answer to the change problem.

4. The Change Target is the designated individual(s) or organization(s) who must be influenced to change for resolution of the problem.

5. The Change Strategy is the plan of action which is developed to effect change. The change strategy takes into consideration the pressures of the open system, their influences on the change target, the change agent, and the definition of the change problem and the change.

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[2] Philip Kotler, "The Elements of Social Action", in Gerald Zaltman, Philip Kotler and Ira Kaufman (Eds.), Creating Social Change (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1972, pp. 172-185.

GUIDELINES FOR DEVELOPING CHANGE STRATEGIES

A change program begins with a statement of purpose which is based on concrete facts. The single most important aspect of a change strategy is to identify a problem that exists in real life. It is not sufficient to state that there is a problem. The identified purpose of the change program must be experienced or observed by enought people and supported by enough data to dispel any doubt by colleagues that the problem exists.

In addition to researching the dimensions of the problem, a change strategy's success depends on the ability of the institution to resolve the problem. Careful study of a college will reveal whether resources are available and whether the faculty and staff have the necessary expertise to provide resolutions.

At the beginning of a change program, change agents often assume leadership positions. Knowledge, sensitivity, an ability to channel resources and an ability to conceptualize long range plans are necessary attributes. Of primary importance, the change agent must be introspective enough to understand why he/she is trying to affect change and how others will view that effort. Through self observation and evaluation, the determination of how a change agent can affect an institution helps to define the change strategy. Because a college is an open system the change agent's values, attitudes, position and abilities will affect the strategy for change. To influence change, one must work within his/her institutional parameters and must have the credibility necessary to influence others. The reasons for assessing all aspects of relationships within a college are obvious. Under normal circumstances, a change agent will be most successful while operating within his/her program focus. An arts instructor may not be able to change educational methodology in the physics department, but may be effective in his/her own department, despite relatively low status.

Professional affiliations are important. And if the change agent is a member of a committee on academic affairs, there may be potential for influencing change in other academic areas. Affiliations become currency within the college. An effective change agent views the institution with discriminating zeal and knows how to establish relationships that will promote change.

The next stage in developing the strategy is to identify the possible change targets by asking the following questions. Who does the change problem effect? Who can be most helpful in having the change adopted? Who has the power and prestige necessary to resolve the problem? Who will be most interested and supportive? Consider all aspects of the change and include faculty members, student groups and community groups.

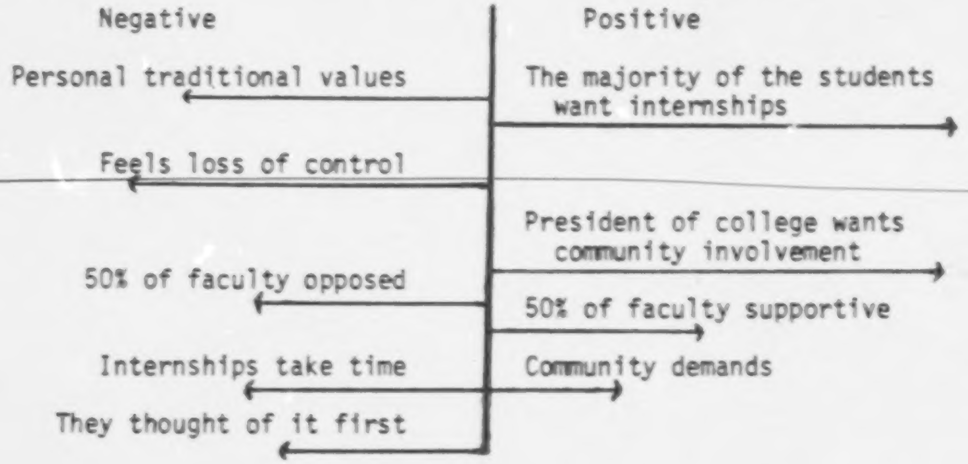
Contacts with change targets must be planned incrementally according to assessments of who influences whom within the university.

The selection of an appropriate intervention level is critical to the success of a new program.[3] [Huse, 1975] Finding out who has the power to help is the key factor. For example, a part time lecturer may be enthusiastic about internship programs, but his/her influence in a department may not be as great as that of a highly regarded tenured faculty member.

Because change is often resisted by the change targets, flexibility must be built into the strategy. Resistance is an indication that someone feels threatened. Internships, for example, could be viewed as threats to some academicians. Although the faculty member has ultimate authority in the classroom, in an internship program the student typically works off-campus. Faculty members would therefore feel a loss of prestige and power unless they were directly involved in the academic component of the internship program. Ideally, the choice of goals for a change should benefit the target as well as the agent, the faculty as well as the student.

The change strategy should address itself to neutralize the resistant forces as much as possible. An application of Kurt Lewin's "force-field analysis" is helpful to identify forces which support and oppose the internship program within the change target.[4]

For example, the negative and positive forces that influence a chairperson of the Sociology Department may be visualized as follows:


Negative
Positive
Personal traditional values
The majority of the students want internships
Feels loss of control
President of college wants community involvement
50% of faculty opposed
50% of faculty supportive
Internships take time
Community demands
They thought of it first

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[3] Edgar F. Huse, Organization Development and Change, (St. Paul: West Publishing Company, 1976), p. 7.

[4] Kurt Lewin, Field Theory in Social Science (New York: Harper and Row, 1951).

The size of the vectors connotes the strengths of the influence in either direction. The change agent will be called upon to interpret these influences and to work with them to develop the strategy.

Working collaboratively with key faculty members and staff lessens intra-college competition and helps to reduce resistance. Collaboration between disparate interest groups leads to improved program planning. Shared goals and resources lead to compatable long term efforts and most people are likely to endorse a program that they helped to establish.

Cooperation, collaboration, compatability and comprehensiveness are important qualities of a change program.

In many ways the change agent is like a gardener. S/he knows when to plant (proper timing), what to plant (the right ideas), how to plant (the right skills) and where to plant (the right change target). A change agent, similar to a gardener knows the planting cycle as well as the harvesting cycle. Weeds and weather conditions can deter or destroy a garden's growth: resistant forces which are not effectively addressed can destroy change.

Successful change agents know that to promote change, one must see with a third eye and listen with a third ear.

The concepts presented are applied to the case history of the strategy used to institute internships at the University of Vermont.

CASE HISTORY--SERVICE-LEARNING INTERNSHIP PROGRAM

In October, 1976, the Office of Volunteer Programs at the University of Vermont changed its name to A Center for Service-Learning. The name change resulted from an alteration of purpose, program emphasis and relationships within the University.

The successful implementation of the Service-Learning Internship Program (SLIP) provided an important impetus towards this new focus. Briefly, SLIP enables college students to work with a community agency (organization or business) for one semester while earning academic credit.

The Change Agent, the Office of Volunteer Programs (OVP), has been an administrative office of the University since 1969. Before the Service-Learning Internship Program (SLIP) was developed, the office administered volunteer programs for college students and community members. A central resource file of several hundred positions is maintained and volunteer recruitment occurs throughout the year.

In addition to the part-time volunteer placement service, OVP also supervises an extensive year-long volunteer program, University Year for ACTION (UYA). The UYA Program, funded by ACTION (the foreign and domestic volunteer program), enables students to work in the community for one full year to address problems caused by poverty. Each UYA student earns full course credit towards their degree and a living allowance.

Through its massive volunteer efforts, OVP successfully established working relationships with the community. However, within the University, OVP lacked visibility and prestige. Although UYA broadened the mission of OVP and constituted its first academic program, most faculty members still viewed OVP as a student volunteer organization. Intra-college politics also effected OVP's rating among faculty members. Course credit for the UYA Program was awarded through the College of Education. A political struggle between Education and Arts & Sciences exists. Often, students enrolled in the College of Arts & Sciences were discouraged from participating in UYA. UYA was perceived as a program in which students lacked academic direction and earned credit for work without study.

OVP's lack of credibility within the majority of academic departments undermined many of its positive attributes. The staff at OVP had expertise in many programmatic areas. Resulting from the experiences of administering volunteer programs, OVP staff members know how to develop effective networks of community communications, program plans, recruitment procedures, academic and field-work evaluations and how to counsel students into selecting desirable community projects.

In summary, the change agent, the Office of Volunteer Programs, had proven itself proficient in administering volunteer programs for college students. Although UYA had been operating for five years, the majority of academic departments did not recognize OVP as having a valid academic focus. OVP was interested in developing an internship program to provide students with more academic opportunities and to solidify constructive relationships within the University.

The need for SLIP arose largely through student demand. Many students who inquired about the University Year for ACTION Program found that they were ineligible to participate. Problems regarding distribution requirements, personal health, financial difficulties, discouragement from academic advisors or the lack of positions related to their interests emerged during their initial application to UYA. Those students who were interested in part-time or one-semester internships discovered that no mechanisms were available to pursue these programs.

Other undergraduates were altogether frustrated by their college education's lack of relevance and often felt like "dropping out" of college. These students wondered why they were pursuing their college education if it did not help them clarify their educational or professional goals. Feeling isolated from the "real world", they were anxious to seek alternatives to the classroom.

Students, as consumers of services, do have some control over change within a University. They typically will boycott classes if an instructor is too demanding, too easy, too boring or too uncommitted to teaching. Because of underenrollment, many classes are terminated. Sometimes whole academic departments are closed because of lack of student interest.

Similarly, high student interest can promote academic reform. New teaching methodologies and new programs have often been established to respond to student demands.

At the University of Vermont, many students who wanted practical experience in their majors, expressed their desires to their academic advisors and to the staff members at the Office of Volunteer Programs.

Secondarily, many community organizations suggested that students receive some compensation for their volunteer work. Also, a small number of faculty members were interested in providing their students with broader experiences in their majors.

The need for an internship program was therefore identified by students, community agency supervisors and by some faculty members.

The change was then defined. OVP launched a campaign to develop and implement internship programs for college students. Potentially, all students would be eligible to participate, regardless of their academic major. Service-learning is based on the principle that learning derived from work experience via a process of structured reflection and assessment with experienced faculty is a productive educational methodology. The program was conceptualized to service environmental studies students, forestry students, political sciences students, as well as education students.

The change targets selected were three departments within the College of Arts & Sciences; Political Science, Economics and Sociology. These targets were chosen for several reasons; high student interest, applicability of the internship concept to these disciplines, availability of related internship placements and by estimates that these departments would benefit from the "change" program.

The plan was to create effective and well designed programs for the first change targets before contacting more academic departments. If the program was successful during its first year, the credibility acquired would provide future potential for expanding the internship program.

The first contact with the academic departments was determined by considerations of how to maximize influence and power. An appointment was scheduled with the Chairmen of the three departments, because of their "position power" and their authority in administrative issues, personnel and curriculum. After the initial interview, another appointment was scheduled for purposes of speaking to their faculty members at departmental meetings. During the departmental meeting, the faculty members were informed of the possibility of having internship programs developed specifically for their students. The faculty was then asked to articulate concerns, criticisms and suggestions about internship programs.

After OVP received tentative approval to develop SLIP, a proposal was written and disseminated to each of the departments. The proposal had incorporated their suggestions. Careful attention was given to address problems previously identified (e.g., lack of communication between faculty and students) and to establish mechanisms for the operation of the program. Each academic department was asked to comment on the proposal for further amendments.

The final proposal was distributed to the Dean of Students, the Vice President of Academic and Community Affairs, the Associate Dean of the College of Arts & Sciences, to members of a Faculty Senate Subcommittee on Field-Based Learning and to the administrative assistants and secretaries in each department.

Through the identification of appropriate change targets and appropriate intervention levels, the change agent succeeded in generating support for the programs. This support from the three academic departments legitimized the program when the final proposal was submitted to the offices of the Deans and the Vice Presidents.

Simultaneously, community agencies were approached and were asked to develop projects for college students while considering the project's relevance to either Sociology, Political Science or Economics. Copies of the projects were sent to the academic departments for their review.

The programs and services of OVP and the academic departments were carefully integrated. OVP assists in recruiting students, interviewing the students for internship placement and helping the students to contact faculty members. The faculty sponsor (i.e. the person who awards course credit for the internship) supervises the student through a learning contract and receives periodic assessments and reports which are administered through OVP.

Program information is coordinated through several vehicles. OVP sends brief job descriptions to the academic departments periodically. The faculty is requested to post the listings or to announce the availability of internships in their classes. OVP also publishes listings in the "Cynic" (student newspaper).

The internship program provides some flexibility for students enrolled in the College of Arts & Sciences. While providing alternatives to classroom participation, the program is viewed as a method to enrich curriculum. Students who participate in internships or who have work related experience before graduation are better prepared to seek employment or admission to graduate schools. A large number of students who previously would have transferred to the College of Education and Social Services because of the lack of field based learning in Arts & Sciences, are now eligible to participate in their own colleges.

Resistant forces that opposed this change program were addressed throughout the development of the SLIP proposal. For example, the faculty were not threatened by SLIP because they did not lose control of the academic component in the internship program. Faculty members still grade the students and still supervise their academic performance. Structural barriers between the administrative office (OVP) and the academic departments have been trespassed to provide students with a viable learning program. OVP is viewed as a service to the academic departments, not as a competitor. Although OVP lacked prestige within the University, resistance to the adoption of the new program was lessened because the change agent was operating within its institutional parameters and because the change agent had the necessary skills.

During the past two semesters, fifty students have participated in SLIP. They have primarily earned credit through Political Science and Sociology. The students have worked in diverse positions ranging in focus from environmental protection to crime analysis. The program has already been partially adopted by other departments who were not the initial change targets. A student from the Department of Plant and Soil Science earned credit through her department while working on geranium propagation. Thus, there is positive evidence that diffusion of the program is already occuring.

In review, the strategy used to develop the Service Learning Internship Program at the University of Vermont was consistant with management of change techniques. I believe that these concepts will be useful to other faculty and staff members currently engaged in developing new programs.

To understand the complexity of a change program, the University is viewed as an open system. The subsystems effected by the change included staff, faculty members, students (internal pressures) and community people (external pressures).

The stages of the strategy consisted of defining the need for change, identifying the change program and assessing the change agent's ability to institute change. Change targets were selected according to their position in the university and according to their potential for sharing goals with the change agent.

The strategy encouraged cooperation between the academic departments (change targets) and the Office of Volunteer Programs. Through collaboration between these two interest groups, the program's design was vastly improved. Resources, skills and ideas were integrated to provide a comprehensive program for the students and to establish communication networks between the faculty, OVP and the community.

Most of the resistant forces (including questions about control and authority) were reduced through these collaborative effects. Each component is consistent and compatible with the program participant's area of expertise. Faculty members define the academic expectations, community agencies develop the job descriptions and supervise the students' work performance, OVP administers the program and the student earns course credit as well as work experience.

Despite the success of the change strategy, philosophical opposition to field based learning is still evident. There are faculty members who feel that students can only benefit from classroom instruction. Tradition-oriented faculty members will only be influenced by their colleagues and through concentrated efforts to provide them with studies that support the academic validity of service-learning. Obviously, the program itself is limited and is not always appropriate as an alternative to the classroom.

Finally, the strategy does not end after the change has been instituted. Communications between the change agent and change target occur on a continual basis to resolve any problems that emerge and to increase support for the program.

The Service-Learning Internship Program will have potential to expand in new academic areas if it continues to receive positive recognition from the faculty.

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D. PREPARING VOLUNTEERS AND ADMINISTRATORS OF VOLUNTEERS

PREPARING VOLUNTEERS FOR WORK IN LONG TERM CARE FACILITIES FOR THE AGED: A UNIVERSITY PERSPECTIVE

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According to the U. S. Census Bureau, approximately 1.1 million individuals age 65 and over live in some form of long term care facility, or nursing home. While comprising only 5% of the total elderly population, this number still constitutes one of the most visible segments, and comprises a group which receives considerable public interest (not to mention financing). Viewed from another perspective, nearly 23,000 long term care facilities exist in the U. S. today. This number is growing at a phenomenal rate, from 11,500 in 1960, and can be expected to grow at an even faster pace in the future. If one assumes for a moment that each facility utilizes (on the average) 10 volunteers, and that of these, 2 are students, there are approximately 46,000 volunteer students working in long term care facility provides a major source of field placement for students from all academic disiplines - psychology, sociology, recreation, social work and human development, just to cite a few. A review of current literature reveals little direct evidence of constructive efforts by universities to deal with the special problems of the elderly within this particular setting. Past training of volunteers had fallen to the facility by default, in spite of the fact that volunteer training has inherent value for all concerned - the university and the student, as well as the long term care facility.

A few questions need to be asked in order to clarify the issues. First of all, why hasn't the university assumed a more active role in the preparation of student volunteers? Secondly, what needs to be done in this area? What goals should be accomplished? Finally, how can these objectives be met, working within the university framework? *Is* there a program which can be effective and efficient for each of the populations involved?

These are just a few of the questions addressed in this presentation. The long term care facility offers a unique opportunity for observations of aging, an institutional environment, and the frustrations and rewards found in a combination of such situations. The fullest use of field placement potential should be made.

GOALS OF PREPARATION

The problems currently associated with the placement of volunteers in the long term care (LTC) facility are not insurmountable. A well-planned policy for volunteer preparation can do much to minimize the negative and emphasize the positive. The development of such a policy begins with the specification of the objectives of the program, or the goals of preparation in this case. Six broad goals may be identified, though more specific ones may be applicable depending on the exact nature of the program and the university. Naturally, the easiest way to begin is to specify the goals of a university program of preparation. Such basic goals of preparation, when implemented should allow students, the faculty (or university) and the facility to gain full benefit from the experience. For students, a well-planned field experience may provide an opportunity to learn precisely how well they can work with the elderly. It should also provide a chance to accomplish specific objectives with constructive supervision and guidance. For the faculty, a well-organized practicum will remove some of the burden of trying to "get across" to students the practical application of classroom principles. It allows the student to test for themselves basic principles in a variety of institutional settings, without being led step by step through the experience. The LTC facility will also benefit from a university program of preparation. Unprepared students waste both time and resources. A prepared student, well grounded in the fundamentals of human development and service, will allow the facility to make full use of his or her potential to increase the flow of new ideas.

To reiterate, the best place to begin is the beginning. Therefore, Goal 1 is to operationalize the model within university guidelines.

Naturally, these guidelines vary from university to university. There are however, certain common elements. The number of credits allowed, the number and types of prerequisites, the requirements of such a course - that is, the number of hours to be spent in volunteer service and the means of evaluation, the selection and approval of an advisor, all these are factors which need to be considered prior to a field experience, and these are generally dictated by the university.

Goals 2 and 3 are also relevant to this superstructure. A basic prerequisite for the planning of an effective field work experience is a working knowledge of the principles involved.

Each student requires a fundamental grounding in aspects of human development and social psychology. Goal 2, the provision and requirement of an essential, fundamental background knowledge of human development and Goal 3, provision and requirement of basic knowledge of institutional sociology address this problem directly. The fulfillment of these goals may, indeed, mean that field work experience must be postponed until the sophomore or even the junior year. It seems preferable to spend this time in the classroom however, in order to foster a working knowledge of some basic principles. This may help to reduce the number of volunteers who are severely disillusioned by their field experience because they still cling to various stereotypes and misconceptions concerning nursing home residents. All are not "at death's door", "too old to learn", "senile", "incapable of doing anything for themselves". The list is endless. Prerequisite course requirements can reduce the effect of such stereotypes. Essential too, to an effective field work experience, is an understanding of the sociology of the nursing home itself. Though most disavow the title "institution" and prefer instead to be thought of as "homes", many of the principles of institutional sociology are suprisingly applicable. There is a status system which is operational and there is a resident "culture". If facilities really desire to rid themselves of the institutional image, they need to be aware of the "institutional" patterns. Students need to be prepared to work within this system. Part of an overall field experience involves learning to work as a part of the system while producing creative changes.

It is easy to forget the fact that the field work experience should be designed primarily for the student. Goal 4 is designed to keep this concept in the forefront. Goal 4 is the specification of the particular goals of the student - what he or she would like to accomplish. It is important that these goals be specific, not "I want to work with old people." Students need to be encouraged to work toward specific objectives. Again, an adequate background is important. Ideally, the student should be aware of the potential experiences available in the LTC setting, and it is obvious that each field experience should be tailored for the student. Much of this tailoring needs to be the responsibility of the student since they should know best what experiences they are looking for. Complete responsibility cannot rest with the student however. Goal 5 addresses a serious problem in most field work programs. It provides for effective supervision, both in the field and in the university setting. Advisors need to be encouraged to take an active role in the supervision and guiding of the student. Periodic conferences can and should be an integral part of the field work syllabus and, if at all possible, the student should be observed in the field. The supervisor within the facility need not be the sole source of information. A field work supervisor or coordinator provided by the university can remove much of the burden from professors and the facility alike. Professors frequently lack the time and/or the inclination to do an adequate job of supervision. A field work coordinator could assume responsibility for the mounds of paperwork, and even some on-site supervision, thus freeing practicum advisors for conferences with the volunteer. These conferences should be somewhat structured, focusing on the experiences and perceptions of the student.

The final goal is also related to this point. Goal 6 provides for the sharing of experiences and problems of the student. It is unfortunate that all to often, a university's only concession to what has transpired before is an ill-maintained file containing the names of the field work placements. Again, the field work coordinator can assume an important role. Prespective volunteers should be able to research the prespective placement thoroughly. Indeed, the different placements even within the LTC facility can provide a very different perspective on the facility and its functioning. Reports submitted by volunteers completing service should be included in these files. A further step toward meeting this goal can be made by requiring periodic conferences among the students themselves to encourage the exchange of ideas and problems. The insights of other students can often be very helpful in minimizing the frustrations which can be encountered.

In summarizing these goals, one can note several broad areas of preparation. The first of these is the need for fundamental grounding in aspects of human development and social psychology. Such knowledge provides a framework upon which to build. Secondly, provisions for field supervision and coordination of experiences is essential to eliminate the disorganization now prevalent. Many times the student is sent forth with only a few words of wisdom, or with the thought that he need only put in his time, only to find that other students have made similar mistakes - mistakes which could have been avoided. This leads to more frustration for both the student and the facility, and a general downgrading of the program by all concerned.

Finally, "individualization" of the field work experience is a goal of preparation which must be stressed. The university, represented by the advisor and the field work coordinator, must work closely with the facility to insure that the needs of the volunteers are provided for. Working within the university guidelines, requirements for each student should not be identical. This is. all students should not be required to read certain books in conjunction with the field work, or to participate in the same programs. A rigorous field work experience should be tailored for each student. Admittedly, this requires more effort by all involved, but it is time that field work rid itself of the "easy A" image. Field work, particularly in a LTC facility carries great potential for gaining a feel for differing patterns of growing old, and this potential should be pursued to the fullest.

In the course of discussing these six goals of preparation, some elements of a model field work program have emerged. First among these is the field work coordinator. Again, the duties of this position include providing the link between student volunteers themselves, and their placements. Scheduling of conferences and an active role in helping the student select his or her placement are also included.

Two additional elements are provided by provisions for increasing interaction among all participants - the facility, the university and the student. Both the facility and the student need to feel the presence of the university, not in a constricting sense, but instead in a resourceful, guidance sense. This can be encouraged by periodic conferences and field observation of the student by the university.

Adequate preparation is another provision of a model program. Naturally, the definition of "adequate" depends somewhat on the individual volunteer. In spite of this, courses in human development and institutional sociology are particularly relevant to volunteer work in the LTC facility. A prerequisite course in "Fundamentals of Field Work" can provide considerable insight into the potentials and limitations of field work placement, and serve as a guide to the maze of options available to the student.

In addition to these elements, provision is made for the individual nature of the field work experience. Student-specified goals in conjunction with the opportunities available within the LTC facility can encourage the full development of talents and abilities of each volunteer.

Finally, a currently much neglected area has been provided for, that of supervision and guidance. This alone can improve the quality of a field work program 100%. This remains a paramount area too frequently neglected by harried professors who are unable to take the time required. This time is required however, if the student is to make maximum progress.

These elements provide the core of a model program of field work preparation. In conclusion, what is the role of the university in preparing students for work in a LTC facility? First and foremost, it has the role of Educator - to provide the student with the background necessary for him or her to go forward in his education, and not simply "mark time". Secondly, the university needs to intensify and accept its responsibility for student supervision. This role should not be delegated completely to the facility. Imbedded within the supervisor role is the guidance role. In the past, the university has tended to forsake this role, leaving the facility and the student to "guess" what is expected of them. By providing constructive guidance, the university can reduce the tremendous waste of opportunity and talent and help bridge the gap between the placement and the university setting.

Finally, the university has a responsibility to both the student and the facility to assure high-quality experiences. This includes monitoring the facility and working with them to insure a variety of positive experiences. On the other hand, the university must be able to assure the LTC facility of the quality and preparation of its student volunteers, thus reducing wasted time and resources on their part.

By assuming a less passive role in the field work experience, universities can encourage the full development of a placement with great potential - the LTC facility. The large spectrum of students to whom this placement is relevant dictates its increasing importance to the university field work program, and the university must recognize this importance and respond accordingly.

Training Volunteer Workers in Extension Education

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The role of volunteer workers in our society is becoming increasingly significant. Private and public agencies are expanding their use of volunteer services in order to involve larger numbers of clients in the services they provide. Individuals in all age groups and levels of society are becoming more oriented to involvement with others for the purpose of providing more meaningful roles for themselves. According to Cynthia Nathan (1971) the volunteer of the seventies. . . "will not be a lady. She may be a he, a young student of either sex, a retired professional, a welfare mother, a former felon, or an industrial giant. But whatever the age, whatever the sex, whatever the economic stratum, (they) will bridge the generation gap and will offer no opiates." (p. 289)

Although the experiences and commitment of the volunteer workers are essential to their effectiveness, something else is needed if these experiences are to be wisely utilized for the agency represented, the population to be reached, and the personal fulfillment of the individual volunteer. That essential component is a training program which bridges the gaps between the goals of the agency, the experiences of the volunteer worker, and the needs of the clients. Often the volunteer workers have never had any formal training in working with or teaching adults. While their intentions may be good and their experience relevant, their teaching skills may be very poor. Thus the task of the extension agent is to train the volunteer workers in the use of effective techniques for reaching the client population.

This is especially important because the impact of a given program often relies on how well the volunteer workers represent the agency's mission to the client group. Figure 1 shows the relationship among these three groups.

Insert Figure 1 About Here

The arrows between the columns indicate that the information or service flow is from left to right, starting with the agency representative and continuing to the volunteer workers and ending with the client. For purposes of brevity, these three groups will hereafter be refered to as trainer, trainee, and client. As indicated by the arrows, there are three places in which information/services flow could fail: (1) The trainer does not provide effective instruction to the trainee. (2) The trainee does not learn the desired information and thus inadequately represents the agency's mission to the clients. (3) The client does not learn the skills taught and/or fails to use the information provided. While each step in the information flow is important, the first is by necessity the most important. It is the foundation and unless it is successful, the others are doomed to failure.

The subject of this presentation is to examine the extension agent's role as a volunteer trainer and to suggest how certain competencies supporting that role may be improved. As a trainer, the extension agent performs essentially the same tasks as do other professional educators such as classroom teachers, professors, and training directors in business and industry. In training volunteers, however, the unique aspects of a training model centers on the differences between volunteer trainees and typical students. While it is difficult to generate a profile that describes all volunteer workers, the distinguishing characteristic lies in Webster's definition of a volunteer. Volunteers are those who enter into any service of their own free will. They offer their services and abilities without constraint or compulsion. A training model for volunteer workers must therefore go beyond the traditional instructional procedures and incorporate steps appropriate to the characteristics of volunteer workers.

The need for training volunteer workers is well documented. According to Zimering (1969), a training program for volunteers in the broadest context should include: "(a) Skills that enable the individual to do his job effectively; (b) clarification and explanation of duties; (c) other sources of help in direct reference to the specific assignment; (d) mutual exchange of ideas regarding program development to meet the needs of those served by the agency; (e) opportunity to meet with other volunteers and professionals sharing similar interests; (f) training and guidance in organzing programs; and (g) leadership towards personal growth and development." (p. 105)

Naylor (1967) states in her book on training and working with volunteers that training the volunteer worker should begin rather early in the volunteer's association with the agency. This training is very specific and "is different from other learning experiences in having the subject matter organized, to be learned in a logical and psychologically sound sequence, with the emerging needs of the learner determinant." (p. 116)

Stenzel and Feeney (1968) identify an organizational framework for training volunteer workers. "The specific organizational needs and goals (based on analysis) are at the top of the frame, while its base is the overall purpose of the organization upon which all programs and services are built. . . The two sides are the specific volunteer job or jobs and the needs and interests of individuals." (p. 56)

Schindler--Rainman and Lippitt (1971) identify competencies needed by trainers in order to effectively train volunteer workers.

1. Skill in diagnosing needs, readiness, and potential for learning.

2. Competence in macro designing.

3. Competence in micro designing.

4. Skill in making intervention decisions.

5. Skill in personal counseling and individual consultation.

6. Skill in involving learners in planning and evaluating their learning experiences.

7. Competence in documenting and evaluating training programs.

8. Skill in developing training materials.

9. Competence in developing team work skills.

(p. 85-91)

The purpose of this presentation is to describe a training model for volunteer workers that is appropriate for extension agents. It attempts to systematize the broad elements cited by Zimering into six specific steps. It incorporates Naylor's suggestion in that it provides a framework for organizing the subject matter to be learned into a logical sequence. It includes elements of Stenzel and Feeney's framework in that the purpose and philosophy of the organization provide the foundation for the model. Finally, it is designed for use by the extension agent or other professional trainers because it assumes that because of their past experiences and education, they would possess most of the competencies identified by Schindler--Rainman and Lippitt as being essential for trainers.

The steps in the model are shown below and are identified by short descriptors that capture the essence of each step. The straight arrows indicate an uninterrupted progression through the model, and the broken arrows indicate re-entry at various points within the process. A more detailed description of each step and the various re-entry points are explained on the following pages.

Insert Figure 2 About Here

ASSUMPTIONS

Since the model focuses on a very specific process and this paper must be somewhat limited in its presentation, certain assumptions must be made regarding its use. The first four assumptions relate to prior recruitment, orientation, and preparation on the part of the agency. In a broader context they could be expanded into additional steps prior to the actual training process, and the extension agent is urged to do this before using the model. Assumptions five through eight are concerned with the most effective use of the model itself.

1. The trainees have been recruited from community members with an interest in the program and its goals. Furthermore, they have been oriented to the significance of their function in the total program and the responsibilities they assume when representing the agency.

2. The needs and interests of the clients have been established through some sort of formal or informal needs assessment, and they are known to the trainer.

3. The trainees are motivated learners and are concerned about the clients to whom their efforts are directed. External factors for motivating the volunteers to join are not built into the model.

4. A climate conducive to learning by adults is established by the trainer. Such a climate includes attention to the psychological and physiological needs of the trainees. It also assumes that many of the trainees have experiences and knowledge that would be helpful to the trainer.

5. The amount of time for performing each step in the model can be varied.

6. The model can be used for short term training such as a three-hour session or over longer periods. The length of the training period depends on characteristics and background the trainees and the complexity of the subject matter to be taught.

7. The steps in the model should be performed in the order listed for maximum effectivness. It is possible, however, that steps three through six may be repeated within a given session without repeating steps one and two. However, they should be repeated in order. This is also true for steps five and six.

8. Step four may be omitted for cognitive objectives which deal with information rather than with performance objectives requiring demonstrations of specific skills.

STEPS WITHIN THE MODEL

1. Who--Client Characteristics

This step refers to client identification and is based on the assumption that the trainer knows the general characteristics of the clients in order to communicate them to the trainees. Identifying the general, and if possible, the specific characteristics of the client groups serves several purposes. (1) The trainer is forced to look beyond the immediate trainees to the final recipient of the information, which is essential if he is to perform effectively. (3) Client characteristics determine to a large extent learning styles and receptivity to various communication techniques.

It is likely that the trainer will know many of the characteristics of the ultimate client group. By starting with this step in the model, the trainer is forced to study the client population and to share that information with the trainees. Many programs that are greatly needed are poorly received because the trainees were unfamiliar with the characteristics of the clients, and consequently the objectives and instructional methods were inappropriate for their needs.

2. What--Specifying Content

The second step in the model refers to the specific content to be taught and is identified in terms of objectives. The type of content to be covered will, of course, be directly related to the needs and characteristics of the clients identified as part of step one. This step in the model puts those needs into a specific format so that the content to be delivered deals with specific units rather than with global topics. The content may be specific skills, such as using a pressure canner or freezing fruits and vegetables, or it may be information about nutrutional requirements for the elderly. Whether the content is learning and refining skills or acquiring information, it should be broken down into units that are clear and understandable to the trainees with the idea that they will in turn do this for the clients.

Identify the specific content of a given training session is best done by specifying objectives of a given training session and the rationale behind each objective, i.e., why are they important, and if they are arranged sequentially, why this arrangement is necessary.

It is not necessary that the trainees know the fine points about structuring content into objectives. They are not designing curriculum--they are simply delivering instruction. It is necessary, however, that the trainer know how to write objectives for the level of the trainees and clients to which the objectives pertain.

3. How--Selecting Methods and Materials

The how part of the model deals with selecting instructional methods for attaining the objectives identified in step two. The instructional procedures must be congruent with the objectives and client characteristics and, to some degree, are pre-determined by these two steps. For example, the characteristics and needs determined in step one and the objectives specified in step two will provide the trainer with valuable clues as to how the content may best be delivered.

Typically, trainers find one method that works well for them and/or is easy to arrange and use this method consistently without considering alternatives. However, there are many resources available to the trainer who wishes to expand on his or her options for instructional strategies. These options include seminar and discussion, audio-visual packages, competency based modules, simulations, and observations, to name just a few. In settings involving cognitive type learning, Bergevin, Morris, and Smith (1963) provide an overview of numerous techniques and procedures that have been found to be effective in training adults in large and small group settings.

4. Demonstrate--Demonstration of Skills to be Learning/Taught

The demonstration step in the model is perhaps the most neglected part of most training situations. It is one thing to tell someone how to do something and quite another to show them how it should be done. The demonstration step addresses the issue of "show me how to do it," and it purposefully follows the "tell me what is to be done" rather then preceding it. The rationale behind this sequence is that if the trainees are first told how the objectives will be attained, they begin to anticipate what to expect and are then more prepared to attend to the steps in the actual demonstration. Theoretically, telling the trainees what before demonstrating how has the effect of setting up the attending stage in the learning process. They are then prepared for the reception stage of the learning process, which in this model is the actual demonstration. This in essence serves as an advance organizer for what is to follow in the demonstration and succeeding steps.

Many times the demonstration centers on a simple skill or technique and thus is informal and requires little advance preparation. At other times it may involve somewhat technical skills and requires more preparation. The following list of suggestions on conducting a demonstration of technical skills is summarized from Kidd and Leighbody (1966).

a. Before conducting any demonstration, refresh yourself as to the exact objectives of the lesson.

b. Make certain that all machines, tools, drawings, charts, instruction sheets, working materials--in fact, every item which is necessary to insure a smooth and uninterrupted demonstration at hand and properly arranged before the demonstration begins.

c. Be certain that those who are to witness the demonstration are physically comfortable, and can remain so throughout the demonstration.

d. Be sure that everyone who is expected to observe the demonstration can see every movement and hear every direction or explanation clearly.

e. Make certain that there are no distracting influences which will prevent the learners from directing their full attention toward the teacher.

f. Do not begin the demonstration without first explaining exactly what you are about to demonstrate and connecting it with what the student already knows or has done.

g. If the direction of movement is a key element of the work, arrange the demonstration so that the learners view the work being demonstrated from the same position that the teacher views it, the same position in which the learner will work when he undertakes to do the work himself.

h. Perform the demonstration slowly enough so that the learners do not miss the key points.

i. Pause at intervals and ask questions to determine whether the learners are understanding and following the demonstration.

j. Following the demonstration, quickly review the key points with the class.

5. Practice--Providing Opportunities to Practice the Demonstrated Skills

Often the practice step is combined with the demonstration step and presented as a single activity. However, it is recommended that when the trainees are inexperienced, the two steps be treated separately and in the sequence suggested. A combination approach is more appropriate when the trainees are experienced instructors.

Practice also requires careful planning. Allowing the trainees to practice what was demonstrated in step four is extremely important for a number of reasons: (a) It reveals to the trainer any gaps or weaknesses in the demonstration, i.e., what must be demonstrated once again. (b) It provides a second or third means to the trainees for learning the desired skill. They have heard about it, they have seen it, and now they can practice doing it. (c) It emphasizes to the trainees that they, too, must allow the client to practice the behavior to be learned. (d) Perhaps most importantly, the practice step allows for and implies the necessity for step six, feedback.

6. Feedback--Appraising Performance and Suggestions for Retraining

In this context we are using feedback in the literal sense--telling the trainees whether or not their performance during the practice step was satisfactory and if not, how it can be improved. Also implied in the definition of feedback is appraisal of the trainees' efforts. Pointing out weaknesses is often taken as criticism rather than as constructive suggestions. Offering feedback that is constructive and reinforcing rather than destructive and punishing is not a skill that one is born with; it must be learned. It is especially important with adult trainees whose participation in a program is not compulsory, but voluntary. The assumption is that the volunteer (the trainee) is a valuable resource to extension services and, like other valuable and scarce resources, needs to be utilized wisely, conserved, and cared for. Appropriate feedback techniques will help maximize the services volunteers provide to a program and at the same time provide them with a sense of accomplishment.

Feedback can be provided during the practice step or after the practice step is completed. It can be directed at individuals or at the total group of trainees. The trainees can also provide feedback to each other concerning their individual performance. Whether done by the trainer, trainee, or both, the purpose of the feedback step is to answer the question, "How am I doing?" In addition to answering this question for the trainee, it indicates to the trainer how well or how poorly he has done and at which step, if any, he should begin to recycle the training model.

RECYCLING THE STEPS

The possibilities shown in Figure 2 are largely self explanatory. Figure 2 illustrates the feedback loop and suggests re-entry at any one of the preceding steps beginning with step two. The arrow from feedback to practice indicates that the trainee simply needs additional opportunity to practice. The arrow from feedback to demonstrate indicates that the trainer needs to explain or demonstrate once again the procedure to be learned. The arrow from feedback to how indicates that instructional methods were perhaps inappropriate for the objectives.

CONCLUSION

The approach for training volunteer workers described above may appear somewhat mechanistic at first glance. However, rather than limiting opportunities for personal development and creativity, it enhances them by providing a systematic framework for planning various group as well as individualized activities. The trainer is encouraged to look beyond the six steps in the model and focus on the volunteer trainees as individuals having special talents and experiences who are willing to share them. "Volunteers may come to training for a variety of their own reasons, but primarily they want to learn how to carry the assignments which they have assumed as volunteers." (Naylor, p. 107) That can best be done by providing a systematic plan for training them to deliver the agency's services in the most effective way. Effective instruction is a very systematic process. It requires more than just a knowledge of the subject matter and an intuition about the clients. It must be carefully and thoughtfully planned if the delivery is to achieve the impact desired.

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Role	Volunteer Leader (Extension Agent)		Volunteer Worker		Client
Function	Represents agency (usually an employee)	→	Represents agency (usually non-paid, part-time worker from community or group to which services are directed)	→	Represents group to which services are directed
Task	Train volunteer workers to deliver specific information or services to clients	→	Deliver specific information or services to clients	→	Use the information or services provided

Figure 1. Relationship Among Volunteer Leader, Volunteer Worker, and Client.

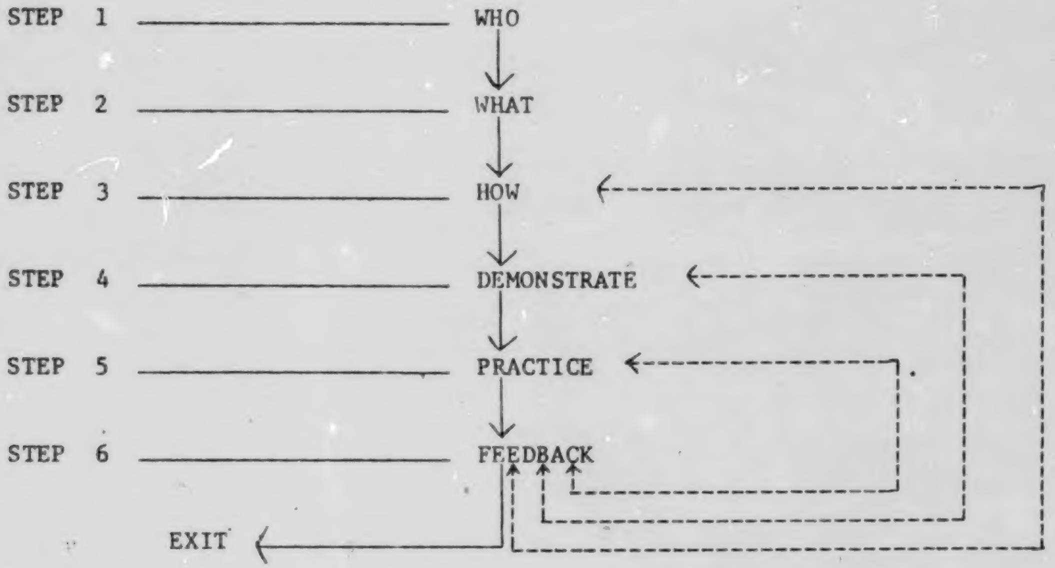
STEP 1
WHO
STEP 2
WHAT
STEP 3
HOW
STEP 4
DEMONSTRATE
STEP 5
PRACTICE
STEP 6
FEEDBACK
EXIT

Figure 2. Steps Within The Training Model
For Volunteer Workers.

VOLUNTEERISM AND THE UNIVERSITY--
PROCEED WITH CAUTION

A Non-Paper

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A non-paper. What does that mean? The fact is that I would argue that I have no paper to present. What I have are some ideas that I have been struggling with for some months now and some notes and other things I have thrown together recently on the role of volunteerism, the role of the University and how they might interact. I don't pretend to have what anyone would call a polished paper and I don't intend to publish anything in the proceedings that will come out of this conference. What I do have is a position that I want to defend, that I want to throw out as a caution, and a warning to see how it sits with the folks who are here at this conference. The position simply stated is: Be very careful when you are "mixing" volunteerism with the University. I want to throw up a yellow flag of caution for this relationship so that we can possibly avoid throwing up a red flag later.

I think it's only fair for you to know some of my personal background before I further explain this position. I have been involved in volunteerism since 1970. I was a Big Brother for one year when I was a graduate student at the University and then for somewhat unknown and very complicated reasons I became president of this organization known as Madison House. Madison House is a non-profit corporation located in Charlottesville. It is at the University of Virginia but its not legally part of the University. It could be looked at as a private foundation of some sort, it has an endowment fund, it has its own building, it is also a quasi department of the University, it has had a long and interesting history starting as the YMCA. In 1969 Madison House began getting involved in volunteerism and it has grown and developed considerably since I first had my relationship with it as a Big Brother. The years from 1969 to 1977 could be thought of as "golden years." In this time that I have been involved in volunteerism I have seen many interesting things; local, state, and national organizations have developed, a body of literature has begun to appear, a multitude of conferences are taking place. I have participated in these sorts of activities--I have read a lot of the books on volunteerism, I have written my book reviews, and I have been to a lot of conferences. Increasingly of late I have been asking myself what does it all mean--where is volunteerism headed?

Now for a historical perspective on this particular situation I am in right now (i.e., presenting a "paper"). I have been to Virginia Polytechnic Institute several times for conferences. I have known Del Dyer for some time now and we have had some interesting talks concerning volunteerism. Well, in October or so we received this "Call for Papers" for this conference. I assume most people got the same sort of thing (i.e., notice of the conference). My initial reaction was kind of to laugh and kind of to be put off, outraged, maybe internally to "cry" a little bit about it. What is going on? Are they really going to have a conference on the roles of colleges and universities in volunteerism with academic papers presented? I was feeling very strongly this was something I didn't want to be involved with. After talking with my assistant, Bob McDonnell, some other people at Madison House, and especially with my wife, I decided that perhaps my obligation was to come to the conference and challenge the idea of even having a conference like this. So over the past number of months what I have been doing is attempting to think this thing through so that my views can be expressed in an understandable manner. It has been difficult. In some cases, I am sure that what I have to say has been said before in other contexts but I feel strongly that it needs to be said today.

I don't know whether it is just my good fortune, circumstances, coincidences, or what, but just the other day I received an article that brought all my ideas into focus. I have a subscription to the Chronicle of Higher Education and in its issue dated April 25, it has an essay (back page column "Point of View") called "The Professionalization of the Humanities". What I want to do is to quote extensively from this but to modify it as I go along in such a way as to substitute for "humanities" the term "volunteerism". What is being said in this essay April, 1977 I think might eventually be said about volunteerism in April, 1987 if, as I fear, some of the things that are currently taking place in volunteerism do lead us in the direction that is outlined here. So if you will bear with me: This is written by Simone Reagor who was director of the division of research grants at the National Endowment for the Humanities from 1974 to 1976.

Scholars and teachers of volunteerism once believed they played a key role in society as conveyors of an important cultural heritage and as nurturers in the young of a valuable attitude towards life and mankind.

Their focus was unquestionably on their advocacy; they gave relatively little attention to formal rewards. Scholars pursued their interests because they cared greatly about what they were doing.

In recent times the attitude of teachers and scholars in volunteerism has undergone a tragic change. Their sense of civic and social responsibility has disappeared. Moreover, financial and career rewards are now more important for most of them than are the importance and purpose of their roles. Somewhere along the way volunteerism leaders themselves have come to define their responsibility narrowly to their fields. Now the iron curtains of their specialities separate them from each other and from society. The tradition has vanished behind the lines of individual disciplines.....

Separate departments exist in every area of volunteerism--and still newer and more limited ones are being created each year. Learned societies and professional organizations of every variety have been established, ranging from groups with broad academic and scholarly purposes to those with narrower interests.....

Obviously, much good can be said for the professional developments in volunteerism; all have responded to various needs. But it is equally true that the organizational development of volunteerism has contributed to their becoming rigid and political.....

Professionalization has introduced power politics to volunteerism, to the point that politics is now as dominant a force as it is in the sciences or even in the business world. For many teachers the primary goals have become the next promotion, a bigger departmental budget, and attainment of professional office or publication of yet another book or article. The motivating force of life is the desire for the constant accretion of prestige and status. Maneuvering and in-fighting for these career goals have become so common that they create the accepted tone in many departments and professional organizations.....

While the corpus of learning has certainly expanded, the drive to power has contributed to the wild increase in the number of journals, the enormous production of books and articles, and the development of associations and centers. Because of the importance of attaining position and power, there is a tendency whenever differences or disagreements arise in a field for one segment to break away to form a new association or to establish yet another journal. Under the influence of this politicizing force volunteerism scholars have spread out in new directions in order to broaden their power base, thus giving more people opportunities to win position and prestige.....

The current financial crunch in the educational world has certainly intensified the problems of professionalization. Under the stress of economic difficulties and the intense competition for jobs and tenure, academics are impelled to find ways to strengthen their resumes, to show an even higher level of professional accomplishment. Maneuvering for grants and positions in departments and organizations becomes ever more savage. But the process of professionalization and the resulting politicizing of volunteerism was under way well before the economic difficulties began. It would be a serious mistake to place all the blame for these problems on the current crisis. Rather, the responsibility lies with the people who have chosen volunteerism as a life course.....

Obviously it is not possible to return to an earlier level of informality and innocence. Nor is it desirable. The professionalization of volunteerism does have some benefits. But if we are to reap those benefits fully, we must recognize the dangers and the damage already done. The health of volunteerism can be restored only by individuals, by people who care more about what they are doing than about their political position in a department or field. Universities must find ways to encourage this kind of self-direction. ....

That's a very lengthy quote. I wish I had written it. I am glad somebody wrote it about the humanities and I think honestly someday somebody might be writing it about volunteerism.

Now I would like to get into some of my own personal notes that I have tried to put together. My own feeling is that volunteerism might work. In fact there are a lot of people who think it already is working and it is working pretty well. Some even see it as a viable, long run, increasingly dynamic, social force. Others maybe are not quite so sure. From a university's perspective (its so called "mission") on the one hand this situation is a challenge, an opportunity-- to explore volunteerism, criticize it, dissect it, participate in it. These people who do believe in volunteerism want and need to know how and why it works. Academia may have some answers for that. Those who doubt volunteerism's real value want more information so that can decide whether its worthwhile or not.

The growing interest by the academic world offers benefits to the volunteer movement if it is approached with considerable caution.

Now from volunteerism's perspective the university does offer resources which if recruited and coordinated properly, will enhance and promote the growth of a voluntary society. Volunteerism has enjoyed a period of prosperity--let's call them golden years. Though, it has not been a period of economic prosperity necessarily. I feel that the growth and development of volunteerism is due in large part to certain inherent qualities that it has relative to other fields. There is a lot of independent initiative in volunteerism, sort of grass roots stuff, lots of creativity, flexibility, spontaniety. A great deal of self renewal is evident. There's a constant turnover of the people who are involved in volunteerism and there's continuing questioning of what they are doing and could they be doing it better. This is good. The challenge that volunteerism faces is to continue to grow and develop and build on those things--the specific qualities and strengths it already possesses. The danger to volunteerism is that it will fall prey to other forces (not all academic), some of which are mentioned in the article that I quoted. Especially things like the self-preservation, overspecialization, publish or perish mentality. I think that anybody in academia can point to certain things that have gone wrong in the development of that discipline. What I am trying to do is point out what can go wrong with volunteerism based on what we have seen go wrong in these other fields. Since a great deal is unknown about volunteerism, that is one of the things that makes it vulnerable. It has grown very rapidly. Of course there has always been volunteerism (not always called that)--anyone who had done a history of volunteerism goes back and quotes de Tocqueville and on back. But when you look at the statistical reports on volunteerism you see that there has been a tremendous growth in the late 1960's, expecially among university volunteer programs, such as I am involved with, and high school programs. This rapid growth may have been haphazard and this makes volunteerism very vulnerable. It is an attractive thing for academia to come in and inquire about. If you are perseptive, you can already see volunteerism getting hooked. For example, there is a debate going on about the operational language of volunteerism. How do you define volunteer, voluntary, volunteerism? It is a prelude to development of a jargon, I am not sure there is a volunteerism jargon yet, but there is the environment for it. There is a great deal of interest in the motivational aspects of volunteerism. Why do people get involved; how do you keep them going; how do you determine their specific motivation and channel them into proper most efficient use of that sort of motivation? Theres also a great deal of interest in applying business management techniques to volunteerism. I personally think this is a really good idea. Volunteer supervision, training, evaluation, and marketing are all relevant areas of study.

Given this sort of environment you can see how volunteerism can benefit from a relationship with a university. The real question is: Are the best interests of the volunteer movement and the university's mission a) an intersecting set of issues, b) a conflicting set of issues, or c) a null set. I think I personally have ruled out the null set and I would like to see it be an intersecting set of issues, not a conflicting set. And that to me means both parties have got to enter into this relationship with a great deal of respect for each other. They can not abuse each other for their own purposes. For instance I don't think that academia should be using volunteerism as a "guina pig" to test out its new social theories. At the same time volunteerism can not expect academia to contribute its knowledge without some reciprocal benefits.

Volunteerism is at a crossroads; it is under a microscope and more questions are raised than are answered. What I propose is a philosophical approach which is based on what is known in economics as a "Pareto optimal"--a situation in which everyone is better off and no one is worse off from the interaction of the two parties. I hope I have already begun to warn of some of the impending dangers of an unplanned relationship. I think the role of universities in volunteerism is to raise questions, test viability, encourage, criticize, guide, support and especially to intergrate existing and newly developed knowledge. The danger is that it won't do any of these sort of things or it will start to do some of these other things I have alluded to, especially over-professionalization. Since supporters of volunteerism have always talked of working within the system, avoiding duplication, supplimenting not replacing the services of professionals there is a chance in a relationship with a university to abide by these sort of philosophies. Why can't courses in volunteer administration, if we want to call it that, be incorporated in existing curriculum areas. For instance, business and commerce schools can do an awful lot by just modifying their current curriculum to deal with the issues that are especially relevant to volunteerism. The fields of education, sociology, psychology, urban affairs, and many others all have the potential to contribute significantly to volunteerism. I don't think that volunteerism, however, should totally submerse its social identity within these other disciplines. It does need an identity but not necessarily an entire curriculum (or worse a department) based on volunteer administration, certification, etc.

I have got another quote which states in another way the feelings I have about the appropriate relationship between universities and volunteerism. It deals with action learning which is sometimes described as volunteerism for academic credit. Action learning is really a multi-disciplinary approach to education. It is a quote from Alan Toffler who wrote Future Shock:

> *"The combination of action-learning with academic work, and both of these with a future orientation, creates a powerfully motivating and powerfully personal learning situation. It helps close the gap between change occurring 'out there' and change occurring within the individual, so that learners no longer regard the world as divorced from themselves, and themselves as immune to (and perhaps incapable of) change. In a turbulent, high-change environment, it is only through the development of a 'psychology of the future' that education can come to terms with learning."*

There is currently a lot of talk in education about a so called "life centered curriculum." In a sense, since volunteerism reflects life, volunteerism can be thought of as a life centered curriculum. To reiterate, though, I don't think volunteerism has to have its own special department or its own special niche within the university.

Even worse than a lack of interaction between volunteerism and the university would be something called "academic voyeurism." This is the study of other peoples problems for academic self gratification. This goes back to the guinia pig thing. Should academic institutions be trying to identify the body of knowledge which is unique to volunteerism? Should practicioners be certified and recertified to insure competency? Who should do this? How many professional associations are needed? I understand that there are at least 13 or 14 and they have even formed an alliance of the 13 or 14. Thereare alot of journals and publications coming out now. There are a lot of conferences taking place (this is about the sixth I have gone to this year. I am trying desparately to get unhooked). Therefore it is possible, to overspecialize volunteerism. Sure, those certain conferences and programs designed to share experiences and get folks together who have common problems are fine. I think that perhaps this conference could be a classic example of over specialization. The jury is still out on the conference. I am here for as long as I can be to see if volunteerism is going down the wrong road. I don't think volunteerism needs as much theory as some people seem to think it needs. I think it needs more interaction, more intergration, it needs people doing things, not watching other people doing things. I don't think it needs to be cut up into little specialities. For instance, I don't want to become part of an organization of student volunteer administrators in the southeast region of the United States with universities with 20,000 students who have over a 1,000 volunteers. As absurd as that sounds, I really think there is a danger that it might happen.

People like me I guess cry wolf. I think all these dangers I have tried to catalogue can be avoided, and I think the time to start avoiding them is very close at hand. Volunteerism is a very interesting social phenomen. It is well worth inquiry to ascertain the reasons for its success. But if volunteerism's needs are not served in such an inquiry and the universities' needs are served, then I think volunteerism has sold itself short and lost an opportunity. We can look at other developments, other disciplines and learned from them. We must before it is too late.

A UNIVERSITY - COMMUNITY PARTNERSHIP FOR VOLUNTEERISM

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Voluntary Action Center '76-77

INTRODUCTION

My interest and involvement in volunteer partnerships has emerged from my experiences as a Director of a volunteer early childhood program, Program Specialist for a children's coordinating council, administrator for a federal inservice project, and President of our local Voluntary Action Center. Within the scope of this paper, I will be drawing upon these experiences as a foundation for raising some issues concerning volunteerism and suggesting a framework for meeting these issues and challenges. The paper will concern itself with the philosophy of a university-community volunteer partnership, the programmatic action needed to create the partnership, the roles of the university, school, and community in the partnership system, and finally, the implication for such an integrated human care system.

THE SEEDS OF A PHILOSOPHICAL PARTNERSHIP

I am a believer in the gradualist school of change. This means I somewhere between the status quo and the revolution. Because of this belief, I see a vast and rich system of resources available for use by schools, neighborhood associations, governmental bodies, community agencies, and citizen councils which exist within the university resource setting. However, the wealth of expertise in research, development, and special instructional programs of the university must be translated into action and community enrichment. John Friedman (Retracking America, p. 110, 1973) outlined the heart of this partnership between expert (university) knowledge and client (community) action. The requirements of this mutual communication are:

- The expert, to work with models abstracted from the real world and operating under controlled environmental conditions;
  The actor, to work with models of the real world under the variable conditions of a shifting environment;
- The expert, to work without regard to an existing power distribution and to be unconcerned with outcomes in the real world;
  The actor, to take the distribution of power as the starting point of his analysis and to consider, first, the means through which a course of action may be carried out;
- The expert, to search for certainty in results by means of continuous exposure to critical views;
  The actor, to take on normal risks of action and keep opponents ignorant of his own strategies;

- The expert, to be content with general solutions within the assumptions of *the model;*
  The actor, to seek deterministic answers to the problems of a special case;
- The expert, to interpret the past;
  The actor, to make the future;
- The expert, to work without limitations of time;
  The actor, to work under the pressure of time;
- The expert, to specialize in one branch of knowledge at a time;
  The actor, to demand a general expertise, capable of taking many branches of knowledge simultaneously into account;
- The expert, to look for success in academic recognition;
  The actor, to look for practical payoffs in terms of profits and power.

These requirements of mutual communication will not produce a partnership between the university and community. There must be something more than a theoretical description. There must be a commitment to human dialogue (Friedman, pp. 178-181, 1973). This human centered dialogue...

- presumes a relationship that is grounded in the authenticity of the person and accepts his "otherness" as a basis for meaningful communication.
- presumes a relation in which thinking, moral judgment, feeling, and empathy are fused in authentic acts of being.
- presumes a relation in which conflict is accepted.
- presumes a relationship of total communication in which gestures and other modes of expression are as vital to meaning as the substance of what is being said.
- presumes a relation of shared interests and commitments.
- presumes a relationship of reciprocity and mutual obligation.
- presumes a relationship that unfolds in real time.

We at the Eugene Teacher Corps Project have written a proposal for 1977-79 which states that mutual technical assistance which will exist between teachers in the school district and the secondary faculty of the Teacher Education Division. The proposal is entitled, Inservice Education and Curriculum Development: A Research Based Strategy, 1976. The university will assist a high school to implement an interdisciplinary program. The school staff will assist the secondary faculty to develop a model inservice program. These groups have needs which can be met by the knowledge, expertise, and experience of each other. This commitment is the first stage in such a project partnership.

I realize how easily the communication between expert and client can breakdown and become a source of conscious or sub-conscious conflict. When I wear my citizen hat, I often find myself saying, "they (meaning the professionals) don't understand, or why won't they listen". If it can be that frustrating for me, how is it for citizens who are suspicious of well intentioned, committed professionals? Frustration and discouragement are not the sole possession of expert or client. In order that any partnership can exist, the commitment to dialogue must become the substance of the relationship. Only in a relationship of I and you becoming we can a moral human care system exist (Jantsch, p. 83, 1976).

THE PRAGMATIC PARTNERSHIP - A HUMAN CARE PERSPECTIVE AND THE CONSIDERATION OF TRAINING

There are some questions I would like to raise which will lead us to a discussion of a functioning university-community partnership. For instance, in the planning, coordination, and delivery of volunteer services should these services be separated into their own unique category? To be a little more explicit, should volunteer services be an incorporated category of long range planning (3-5 years) like educational planning or a unique subset of itself? One can gain a perspective on this question by asking to what extent is mental health separate from health in the planning, coordination, and delivery of services. In Oregon, there are two allied systems, the Department of Education and the Department of Human Resources which are responsible for our children and families (Kutz, 1976). These systems attract the majority of our volunteer resources yet no where are volunteer services a major unit of any Department.

Let's pose another similar question related to the context of training professionals who work in a human care and resource development system (Figures #1 and #2). Who at the university level should be responsible for the preservice training of the volunteer counselor, specialist, coordinator, and administrator? A corollary question is, how can these professionals receive inservice training and what is the role of the university and college regarding this un-captive clientele? Assuming that a human care and resource development system should integrate long range planning, coordination, and the delivery of services with the involvement of the community, what type of professionals are needed to energize it and where ought their training occur? The ecology of this training is an important variable since one must interact with the special conditions of the setting to do and grow. It is equally important to recognize that parents, volunteers, and other community residents are themselves professionals in the context of professing their life in the community, and must continue their life-long learning in the human care setting.

At this point, let us revert back to our first question, should volunteerism be a separate component in a human care and resource development system? Although I could be persuaded to answer yes, I feel that volunteerism should be integrated into such a system. It is difficult for me to conceive of it any other way although the strength of volunteerism is beginning to demonstrate itself as we face the era of finite resources, inflation, and constriction of human service funding. The trained volunteer, in many ways, is becoming more valuable than the paid professional.

If we buy the notion that volunteerism is an integral element of such a human system, then it follows that preservice and inservice education should also be included in this partnership since one's professional development is partly a function of the setting in which s/he operates. Consequently, it is the agenda of the university to assure that it also operates within this integrated context, practices field research and program development, and joins with the community to form a partnership where the research, development, planning, programming, and delivery of services occur at the most organizationally integrated, and geographical unit (Edwards, Moorhead, 1973). Only within this context can the knowledge of the university be joined with the action requirements of the community to create a partnership which utilizes the best of both systems. Because there exists the need for clients to receive services at the most organizationally (school) and geographic (community) integrated unit, the focus for the training of volunteer professionals becomes the school-community milieu. One example of this milieu approach is our current Teacher Corps Project.

PARTNERSHIP LESSONS -- THE EUGENE SCHOOL DISTRICT - U OF O TEACHER CORPS PROJECT

The Teacher Corps program began as a national attempt to alleviate the teacher shortage by recruiting liberal arts students to the teaching profession. As the overage shrunk and teachers became in oversupply, the Teacher Corps Project recognized the need to focus its effort on inservice education within the school and community. An implicit value behind this type of partnership is the recognition of changing the priorities of teacher education and colleges of education and enhancing the relationships between schools, universities, and communities (Teacher Corps Brochure, 1977). To this end, it is paramount that the university join with the school and community to create a partnership which will integrate program development structures, policy formation structures, and project review and documentation structures within ecological settings such as federal projects (Kutz, 1977). This overall communication and coordination system allows the partners to collaboratively manage their efforts (Figure #2).

Inservice education as a key element of this partnership comes into being as a function of the situation in which teachers, aides, volunteers, parents, community service agents, and others define their needs. It makes sense that the university professionals would realize the strength of any preservice program is a result of their inservice program. This means that a university coordinated preservice program for volunteer training is a necessity. The U of O has a program called ESCAPE (Every Student Caring About Personalized

Instruction) where students volunteer in the schools and receive course work in various departments. ESCAPE also allows students to administer the program themselves, thus assuring experience in administration, supervision, and program development.

But there are a number of factors which inhibit the easy development of school and community inservice programs. One factor is the fragmented relationship between the school and community itself. Oregon is becoming nationally infamous for its school closures, but other states are not far behind. Another factor is the increasing power of teacher associations and their willingness to become more active in professional development. And, a third factor is the perception that the university is an alien to the school and community.

As I mentioned earlier, in the world of inservice education there is no captive clientele as there is at the preservice level. For the university to become a major resource, school and community residents must view expert knowledge as translatable to their environment and finally to their situation as they experience it. A fourth factor that adds further complexity is centered around the nature of the geography and residents of the school. Teachers are natural residents, but volunteers, parents, and community agents must be also conceived as school residents so that their involvement becomes a natural part of the ecological setting. This type of partnership must evolve if all the school staff are to see themselves and each other as of one kind and capable of cooperatively affecting the human system in which they collectively exist.

At this point I'd like to share with you some of the lessons we have derived from the 1976-77 Teacher Corps experience. Teacher Corps requires that inservice be available to all school staff including aides, volunteers, and parents. For parents, classes in parent education were conducted. Training sessions for volunteers and aides were presented on communication skills and understanding children, assertiveness training, and problem solving, and tutoring in reading and math. Approximately 100 volunteers were trained in three months. In order for us to come this far, a volunteer management system was implemented to encourage a positive relationship for volunteers within the school organization.

In delivering inservice for teachers, we have experimented with the idea of request/response inservice (Turner, 1976). The basis of this idea is more closely allied with the agricultural extension agent model, a model which most of you are familiar with, whereby the agent links the need to the resource. In other words, we are using a model which is derived from the fields of community development and continuing education. A major conceptual breakthrough became established since finally an inservice model, not a preservice model, was used in an inservice setting (Turner, Hersh, Arends, 1977).

Some interesting patterns and events are emerging from the application of this concept. First, teacher associations have become very interested in the potential of the model because it begins with the teacher. Second, a trusted inservice educator must operate in the school milieu. We have averaged one request per day where our inservice specialist operates and none where he does not; even when those schools are in our target service area. Third, when the diagnosis of need is done by a third party (not the original client), the resource consultation has proved to be unsatisfactory. Fourth, approximately 90% of the consultations are done by district personnel and 10% by university consultants. We originally believed the percentages would be reversed. Fifth, seldom does the need become met in one consultation. And, sixth, about 1/3 of the requests are programmatic, that is, centered outside of an individual classroom situation. The concepts and emergent patterns are becoming significant indications of the future role of training, not only of teachers mut also those in the service of school and community. A serious question arises: how can the university and the community together influence quality training for volunteers and professionals in the school-community setting?

SUGGESTIONS AND SUMMARY

In order that a human care partnership exists between the university and community (See Figure #3), planning, coordination and service delivery must be integrated. The isolation of citizens from this structure and the fragmentation of effort is no longer justifiable. We have the conceptual models and mechanisms to assure an integrated effort (Kutz, 1976, 1977). The training of volunteers and professionals must emerge out of this ecological system. The results and experiences of this in-the-service-of-effort must be fed into the university training program in order that preservice training be guided by the nature of inservice training. Because professionals and volunteers work in school and community settings, the university experts must be involved in this setting in order that they can learn what is working and why. This will require the university itself to internally integrate their own human resources. Only if they can accomplish this task will human resource students leave with a vision of the whole and how it may operate. If university and community do not accept this role, by default volunteers, professionals, and other professionals will look to community colleges, agencies, and each other for continued education. Some universities and colleges are already moving toward Colleges of Human Services in the attempt to capture what is already transpiring in the client world. Perhaps the most influential role colleges and universities could take would be to research and develop programs and deliver the programs which would assist schools and communities wanting to create their own partnership at what ever level they identified and in doing so would be capable of creating such a partnership within their own setting.

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LANE COUNTY CHILD AND FAMILY SERVICES

(A Community Communication System)

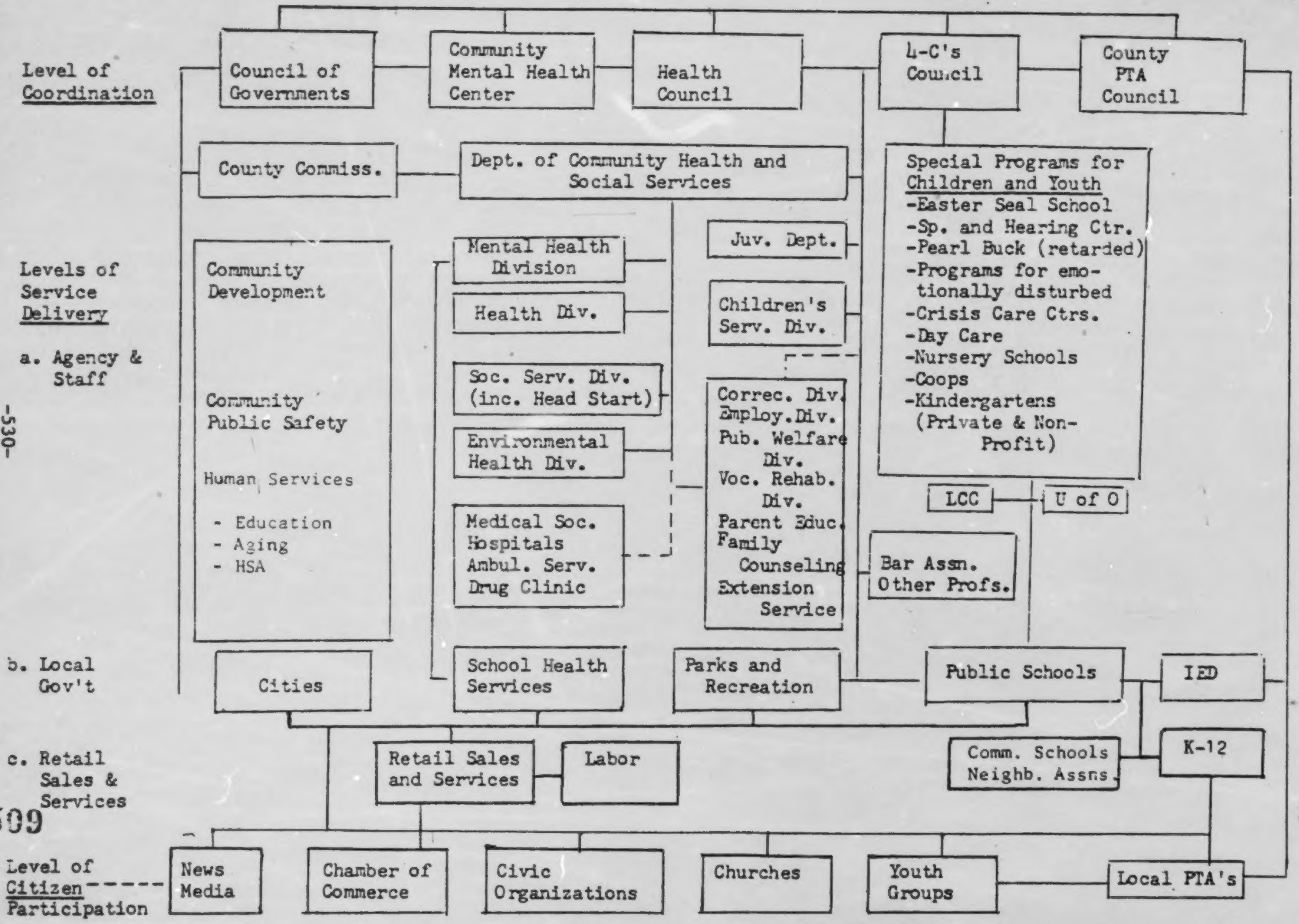

Level of Coordination
Council of Governments
Community Mental Health Center
Health Council
4-C's Council
County PTA Council
County Commiss.
Dept. of Community Health and Social Services
Special Programs for Children and Youth
-Easter Seal School
-Sp. and Hearing Ctr.
-Pearl Buck (retarded)
-Programs for emotionally disturbed
-Crisis Care Ctrs.
-Day Care
-Nursery Schools
-Coops
-Kindergartens (Private & Non-Profit)
Levels of Service Delivery
a. Agency & Staff
Community Development
Community Public Safety
Human Services
- Education
- Aging
- HSA
Mental Health Division
Health Div.
Soc. Serv. Div. (inc. Head Start)
Environmental Health Div.
Medical Soc. Hospitals Ambul. Serv. Drug Clinic
Juv. Dept.
Children's Serv. Div.
Correc. Div. Employ. Div. Pub. Welfare Div. Voc. Rehab. Div. Parent Educ. Family Counseling Extension Service
LCC
U of O
Bar Assn. Other Profs.
b. Local Gov't
Cities
School Health Services
Parks and Recreation
Public Schools
IED
c. Retail Sales & Services
Retail Sales and Services
Labor
Comm. Schools Neighb. Assns.
K-12
Level of Citizen Participation
News Media
Chamber of Commerce
Civic Organizations
Churches
Youth Groups
Local PTA's

FIGURE #1

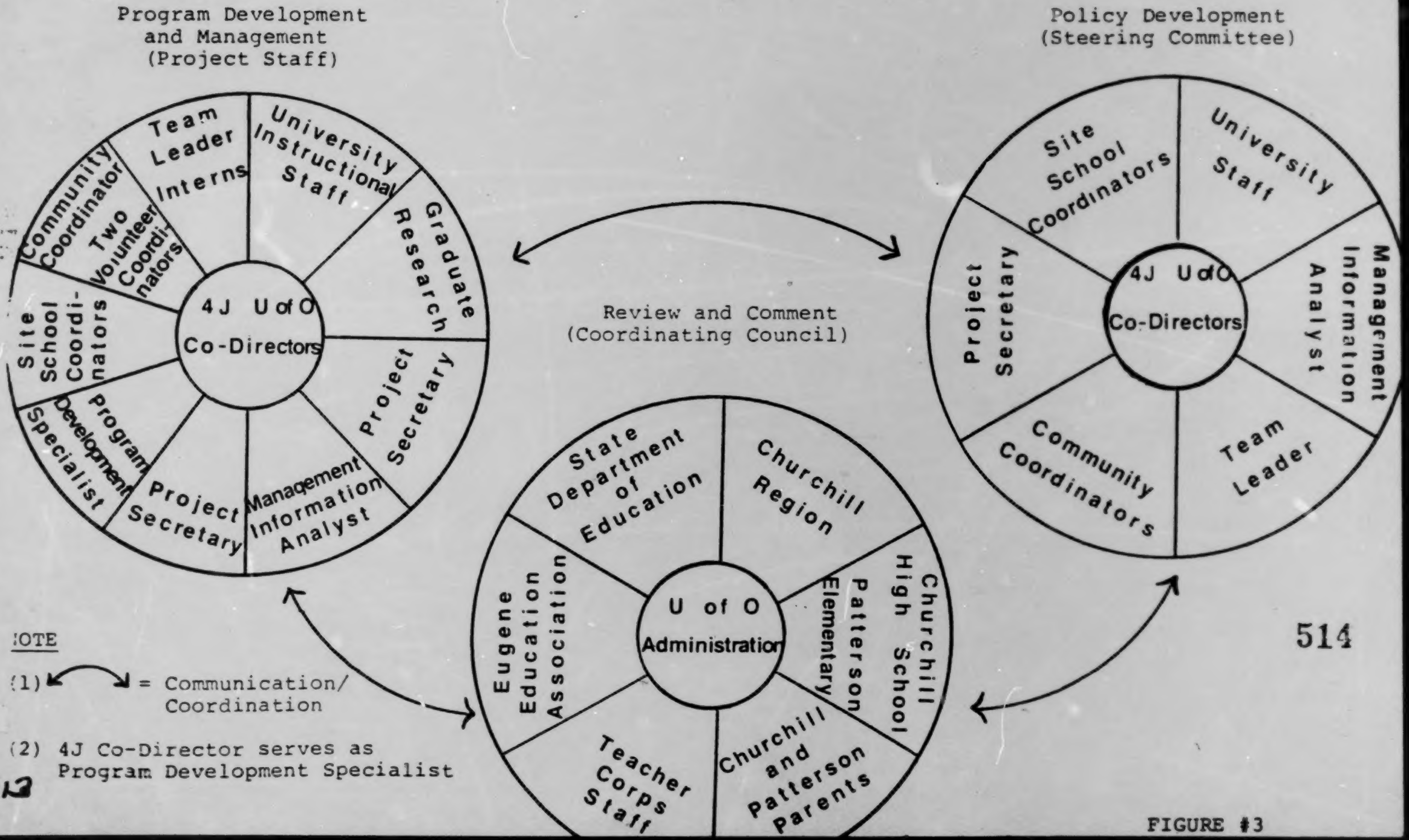
PARADIGM OF COMMUNITY RELATIONS PROCESSES AND COMPONENTS

COMMUNITY RELATIONS	COMMUNITY RELATIONS COORDINATION	PROCESSES INTEGRATION	PRESENT EXAMPLES
A. Service Delivery	Developing Services with the Community	Developing Services into the Community	Human Resource Centers, Community Schools
B. Program Development	Facilitating Programs with the Community	Facilitating Programs into the Community	Primary Prevention
C. Citizen Involvement and Communication	Mutual Decision Making with the Community	Collaborative Decision Making into the Community	Neighborhood Assn., Community Schools
D. Planning	Creating with the Community	Creating into the Community	COG'S
E. Consultation and Technical Assistance	Facilitating Program Processes with the Community	Facilitating Program Processes into the Community	Community Service Teams
F. Advocacy	Educating with the Community	Educating into the Community	Broadly Based Commissions, Boards of Directors, or Counci

FIGURE #2

UNIVERSITY OF OREGON/EUGENE SCHOOL DISTRICT
TEACHER CORPS PROJECT 1975-77

Communication and Coordination System


Program Development
and Management
(Project Staff)
4J U of O Co-Directors
Team Leader Interns
University Instructional Staff
Graduate Research
Project Secretary
Management Information Analyst
Project Secretary
Program Development Specialist
Site School Coordinators
Community Coordinator
Two Volunteer Coordinators
Policy Development
(Steering Committee)
4J U of O Co-Directors
University Staff
Management Information Analyst
Team Leader
Community Coordinators
Project Secretary
Site School Coordinators
Review and Comment
(Coordinating Council)
U of O Administration
State Department of Education
Churchill Region
Churchill High School
Patterson Elementary
Churchill and Patterson Parents
Teacher Corps Staff
Eugene Education Association

NOTE

(1) ↔ = Communication/
Coordination

(2) 4J Co-Director serves as
Program Development Specialist

FIGURE #3

RESPONSIVE INSERVICE - A PRIMER

(The purpose of this primer is to introduce an inservice model which is very different from the conventional one. If the reader needs more information call the Teacher Corps Project (687-3522) for copies of the three papers noted at the end of the paper.)

WHAT IS IT?

The new model inservice proposes to make help available to teachers in much the same manner that agricultural extension agents consult with farmers who have a problem. The essential attributes of the new model are that demand-response time is short, consultation is done on an informal and individual basis, and the life span for each consultation is negotiable by both the "agent" and the person asking for help.

The mechanism will operate briefly as follows: (1) a staff member in the Churchill area identifies a problem related to teaching; (2) the problem is relayed to the Teacher Corps Project whose personnel will immediately begin searching for an appropriate College of Education staff member to link up with the District person having the problem; (3) at the earliest mutually convenient time the two individuals would meet at the school site. This initial consultation would have one of several possible outcomes:

(a) The initial meeting produces relief and the consultation terminates.
(b) The initial meeting leads to subsequent meetings, observations, etc. which other staff members may join.
(c) The initial meeting may balloon into a conventional DCE type inservice class if both participants concur that the need can be best met that way.
(d) The entire transaction may be terminated after any meeting if either party concludes that further consultations would probably be fruitless. In this event the mechanism could be recycled to call in a different consultant.

WHO IS DOING IT?

The inservice model is an experiment being funded and conducted by the University of Oregon - School District 4J Teacher Corps Project. A coordination committee, composed of Keith Acheson (Project Co-Director), Martha Harris (Churchill Region Curriculum Specialist), Dick Hersh (Associate Dean for Teacher Education, University of Oregon), and Jack Turner (Project Intern Team Leader) will oversee the linkage and coordination. Jack Turner will serve as the primary conduit, clarifying and linking requests with campus resources. Jim Bavry, a Project member located on the campus will handle coordination on the University side.

The Eugene Teacher Corps Project has as its main focus assisting school staffs in implementing the Oregon Minimum Standards. Project members are particularly interested in providing training in the areas of diagnostic/prescriptive teaching, goal and competency development, program assessment and community involvement. The new inservice model would not, however, be limited to inservice in those particular areas.

APPENDIX #1

WHEN WILL IT HAPPEN?

We intend to be in business by the first of February. The experiment will continue functioning until the end of the current school year when an evaluation of its usefulness will take place.

WHERE WILL IT HAPPEN?

Because the Teacher Corps Project is a federal project focusing specifically on Patterson and Churchill High School, our first priority must be to serve those two schools. As resources allow we will make the service available to all schools in the Churchill attendance area, then perhaps to all schools in the district.

The inservice consultations themselves will be presumed to occur at the school site except where it is apparent that the consultation would be more useful if held elsewhere.

WHAT ARE THE MODEL'S LIMITS?

As indicated above the service will be limited somewhat in its availability to teachers district-wide due to our project focus in the Churchill area. Another limitation implied by our model is that it provides for individually perceived needs only (as opposed to system needs). It does not provide for flying in "name" consultants from distant places, nor is it intended to pay for new programs sought by school staffs. Finally the model is not intended to duplicate or infringe on the inservice efforts currently operating in the district. We recognize the fact that there are many inservice needs being adequately met by the present system. We will communicate with other district inservice agencies and refer needs to them which are not suited to this model.

WHAT ARE THE MODEL'S POTENTIALS?

(1) One-to-one professional consultation on a specific problem which should generate an individualized and specific response.

(2) Rapid response to expressed needs of teachers.

(3) Increased relations between U of O staff and 4J staff.

(4) Increased awareness of each other's settings by both University and District staffs.

(5) Possibility of reciprocal inservicing between the University and District.

EXPLANATORY PAPERS

(1) "Open Letter to the Dean on Inservice Education" by Bill Drummond, University of Florida, March 3, 1976. (Drummond is the source of the extension agent model in this twenty-two page letter which does an excellent job of identifying the problems arising from the inservice mechanism as presently conceptualized.)

(2) "Inservice: Needs Assessments, Academic Freedom and the Six O'Clock News" by Jack Turner, Eugene Teacher Corps Project, November, 1976. (This short paper attacks the value of needs assessments, the cumbersome nature of conventional inservice, and advocates for their replacement by the extension agent model.)

(3) "Charter of Churchill Area Teacher Corps Inservice Coordination Committee", January, 1977. (This charter details such things as who is eligible for consultation, acceptable sources of consultants, the mechanism and how it will operate, and limitations on the experiment.)

VOLUNTEERING AS A TEAM

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Two programs within the Community Services Division at Champlain College in Burlington, Vermont, are based on the philosophy that combining academic work with on-the-job experience enhances the student-learning process. Students in both the early childhood and social services programs spend time each semester volunteering in schools and agencies to further their own knowledge and further the efforts of teachers, counselors, and social workers.

This is not unique. Most education and social work programs involve both academic work and field experience. What is somewhat unique is our method of combining theory and practice for our early childhood students. I would like to describe that method and also to suggest its application to other fields of education and training.

The initial course in early childhood education, Observing and Recording Behavior, finds all twenty-five freshmen working in our campus child care center. Students work in groups of four or five spending one-half day per week interacting with these three, four and five year olds. As a team they may be assigned specific tasks such as recording the number of times children use the block area or the amount of running between interest areas, planning mid-morning snack, organizing a walk around the neighborhood, or designing a new toy or game and evaluating its use with children. This initial experience is organized with guidelines and specific goals. Students are not left totally to their own devices to meet the needs of the young children. However, it is each student's unique experience that provides the framework for child development theory.

The inductive approach is emphasized. Rather than starting with general principles of child development and applying these principles to actual situations, we start with real "hands-on" experiences and their involvement with children. Hypotheses regarding the causes of behavior are generated through active involvement with children and their parents. Gathering data and evaluating its implications on the original hypothesis makes child development theorists out of each freshman student. "Learning by doing" is emphasized throughout the experience.

As the college supervisor of the child development team, I can discuss individual children's behavior knowing all students have a common frame of reference. A variety of approaches to understanding and evaluating behavior is encouraged. Once the behavior is observed, recorded and discussed we can proceed to the ideas of some of the "experts" in the field. Piaget, Erikson and Montessori seem much more relevant when their approaches can be compared with the students' own. It is exciting for me to observe students questioning these authorities in light of their own observations.

Members of this child development team grow both individually and collectively. Self-confidence is built up in the small team approach. Such confidence can later be applied in the weekly total-group seminar. The reticent freshman may have valid and relevant ideas but hesitate to share them with a large group. The cohesiveness and support of five or six encourages each to share and express opinions.

Strengths are supported and weaknesses are often overcome with team members' help. The sharing of a morning's observations certainly furthers communication skills--both verbal and written. When a student's written records are not clear or objectively stated, a fellow student's constructive criticism brings greater results than my red pen. Providing verbal arguments for one's position develops both self-confidence and self-esteem.

The logistics of this approach are quite simple. Twenty-five students are divided into five or six groups which plan and work together one-half day per week in the child development center. A team conference is held with the college supervisor every other week and individual conferences are held every three weeks. Conferences are used for evaluating each day's activities, discussion of children's behavior, and planning future activities in relation to the behavior observed. Total class seminars are held once a week for a three-hour period. Close student-supervisor contact is maintained throughout the semester. Textbook theory is presented during the seminars as specific aspects of child development are observed and discussed. Responsibility for basic child development theory is not left to the student. The supervisor must generate discussion in areas that may not be evident to students.

Along with teaching the weekly seminar and leading team and individual conferences, I also plan some model micro-teaching units with the young children. Video-taping my own activities with the young children provides much of the support for my suggested methods of dealing with behavior. Such tapes can also be used in discussing individual children's behavior. My approach often does not bring the best results. Student suggestions and comments on their college instructor's behavior may be novel. College freshmen are not often given this opportunity or this responsibility--for with criticism must come some positive suggestions for change.

This initial semester is followed by three more which may or may not include teams of students working together. Some students are now capable and anxious to work on their own. Others may need or simply prefer the team approach. However, the foundation has been set. Students have begun in a safe, comfortable environment which builds self-confidence and responsibility to others.

The team approach is beneficial to the student, the college supervisor and to the client being served. I believe this approach is applicable to situations beyond the early childhood setting.

Twenty students studying the aging process in a Psychology or Human Development course could immediately apply information gained from textbooks and lectures to volunteer work in a nursing home or home for the aged. The college instructor would provide the framework within which students could learn about the needs, concerns and problems of the aged directly from the aged themselves.

One of the most misunderstood life stages could be experienced firsthand. The reluctance of some to directly work with "old, senile people" might be lessened somewhat by the team's support.

Last semester one of our most vocal, outspoken seniors at Champlain had accepted a volunteer assignment at a private nursing home in Burlington. Her goals included visiting two elderly residents on a regular basis. Initial reaction was quite negative and was openly expressed in the team conference and the weekly seminar. Her strong negative feeling toward close contact with the aged raised many questions for the supervisor. On her first visit to the patients' room she broke into tears recognizing her own grandmother in one of the ladies. After some time it was learned that her grandmother had died in a home similar to this one. She wanted to overcome her strong feelings but needed support. The supervisor and her classmates provided that support. On her weekly visit she left notes to the resident supervisor ranging from, "I could only take it for ten minutes today" to "I was here for two hours; I deserve a gold star!" The semester is now over and the girl continues to visit her friends in this nursing home. Responsibility was developed through the student's own action. She has gained greater understanding of the aging process, institutional care; and perhaps most important of all, a greater understanding of herself. This might not have been achieved without the support of the supervisor and her classmates.

Other types of institutions could certainly benefit from team efforts. Elementary and secondary schools continue to need extra help in classrooms. Often, however, student volunteers become confused and frustrated due to a lack of organization in their efforts. A college supervisor acting as on-site coordinator could alleviate many of the school's problems and further the efforts of the student volunteers. Communication among the college, the student and the participating institution is direct and open. Daily and weekly review sessions enable the student to evaluate his performance and set realistic goals.

Medical hospitals, institutions for the mentally ill, retarded and emotionally disturbed, as well as housing developments and recreational programs also seek the assistance of concerned volunteers. Such field locations are not only within the bounds of social work or education programs however.

A team field experience in such places for students in sociology, psychology, political science or economics courses would certainly add a great deal to the usual lecture and textbook. Knowledge in these areas is applied on a first-hand basis. Students learn as they build communication skills. Students increase their own self-confidence and sense of responsibility as they become better community citizens. The college supervisor becomes involved in an area where he or she is also challenged and required to try new approaches to teaching. The trite statement that one should "practice what one preaches" is realized fully when college instructors get out of the classroom and into community service work.

It may seem that this team approach is limited to colleges located in large urban areas. This is not true. I would like to conclude my remarks by suggesting two ways colleges can utilize this approach without necessarily needing large cooperating institutions.

First, students could meet the needs of people in individual settings and then bring their observations and records back to a team conference for discussion and evaluation. A couple of examples--accounting students could organize a free income tax service to citizens in their community. Classroom learning would be applied directly as students gain self-confidence, and learn how to deal with people effectively. Nursing or home economic students could provide nutritional information to expectant parents and/or families. Home visits in student teams would provide support and valuable information could be gained first hand on family relationships and food buying habits. These are just two examples. I am sure you can think of others. Citizens in our communities have unmet needs. Perhaps the college community can help satisfy some of these needs by designing their own volunteer programs on an individual basis.

Secondly, I would suggest that colleges establish their own facility, institution or program to meet an unmet community need.

Two years ago, Champlain College established a Community Education ACCESS Center to provide counseling and career information to adults in Burlington. Staff for this center came from the secretarial, social work and early childhood programs. Team effort was most important. Caring for an infant while a mother took an interest inventory, helping a high school dropout type his resume, and building group communication skills were just some of the tasks organized by students with the aid of the Center's director. The Center continues to grow in its service to adults in Burlington. The students continue to grow in their first-hand experiences with people in need. Learning does not benefit the learner only. It is a reciprocal relationship when the student, the instructor and the client all grow from the field experience.

Other programs could be developed--youth programs, summer recreational programs, family counseling centers, after school activity centers, informational and counseling centers, and educational resource centers. The possibilities are limited only by the imagination, creativity and flexibility of students, instructors and clients in need of service.

These are two ideas that could be tried in areas that do not contain large cooperating institutions.

Volunteering as a team is one approach to enriching student and faculty growth and development. It has worked at Champlain College and continues to add strength to our programs there. It may be an approach some of you might wish to develop.

FORMS AND FORMALIZATION OF VOLUNTEERISM: AN HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE

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Maryland Service Corps

As practitioners in the field of volunteerism, rather than academicians, our interests are somewhat different, and our perceptions can be assumed to be more subjective and visceral, than those of a social scientist or an historian.

With these constraints in mind, therefore, we hope to illuminate the present and future of volunteerism, and some roles of the university within it. From our vantage point in this final quarter of the 20th Century — and the first quarter of the nation's third century, we propose to review the forms of volunteerism which were normative in each of the three major socioeconomic eras of our nation's history; the Agrarian Age — which preceded the substantive and ubiquitous impact of the Industrial Revolution; the Industrial Age — which was the fulfillment of that Revolution; and the Technological Age — which is the infant child of the Post World Ward II Technological Revolution. Our purpose is to seek to identify at least some of the primary sources of the ferment and conflicting viewpoints which are characteristic of volunteerism today.

Our primary interest, and the focus of this paper, is volunteers; defined as individuals who of their own free will provide personal service to other identifiable individuals and communities. This is a much narrower focus than that of others whose interest includes the origins, nature, and functioning of voluntary associations — like churches and veterans organizations, as well as voluntary political, environmental, and consumer action movements and groups. For the purpose of this paper, we are also excluding voluntary service on boards and committees.

Nevertheless, our narrower focus is quite broad, encompassing three types of volunteer service which we define as follows:

1. The first we call "Neighborly Helping". These acts of service are typified by those numerous instances of direct helpfulness among kinsmen, neighbors, and strangers. Generally, these acts are unrecorded and frequently anonymous; ranging from the simple response to a stranger's request for the time of day, to preparing food for a neighbor on the occasion of death in the family, to helping a friend pack and move to a new home. This type of volunteering is rooted in the Agrarian Age.

2. For a second type of volunteer service we use the more technical label, Mediated-Restricted: "mediated" to indicate that volunteer service is rendered through an agency or organization, and "restricted" to denote that the volunteer, the agency, and the recipients of the service belong

to the same population group. In this category are numerous mutual aid associations established at various times during the Industrial Age by ethnic, racial, economic, religious, social, and other sub-populations to care for their own. The early days of the Hibernian Society and the NAACP are examples of organizations covered by this type of volunteerism. The Girl Scouts, however, which serve a population group defined by age and sex, come under our third type.

3. This we call, Mediated-Universal, and is the type we believe most frequently comes to mind when the term "Volunteerism" is used today. The Universal type covers the more or less organized programs operated by or for a host of public and private agencies and institutions. This is the primary arena of professional volunteer coordinators and administrators, Volunteer Bureaus, and Voluntary Action Centers, who recruit volunteers from the public-at-large to serve in hospitals, schools, libraries, and multitudes of other human service agencies. It may be argued that there are two types of Mediated-Universal volunteerism; one which had its origins as a private movement in the Industrial Age, and a newer public form which was born in the Technological Age. We choose to link them as a single type, however, because though their distinctinve origins are a major source of current tension, they are also moving toward greater coherence and cohesion.

During the more than 300 years between the settlement of the early Colonies and the beginning of the Nation's third century in 1976, American society has undergone phenomenal changes. Until recent times, the single most influential engine of social and cultural change was the development and diversification of the machine; an essentially reliable substitute for human and animal muscle power.

The Industrial Revolution significantly impacted on virtually every social institution, past and present. It gave birth to some — such as labor unions; brought extinction or near extinction to others — such as the family farm; and changed the appearance, if not the essence, of scores of others. Of particular interest to us here is its impact on three institutions which have survived; volunteerism, the family, and the university. Each of these institutions was affected in different ways and to different degrees by industrialization.

In the 18th Century and earlier, the typical American volunteer was not known as a "volunteer", and by today's standards, did not act like a volunteer. He or she — and frequently he and she together — were simply helpful neighbors. The typical American family were farmers; members of a close-knit face-to-face community centered around a small village or town.

Except for the occasional physician and teacher and circuit-riding Preacher there was nothing analogous to what we now call "service delivery systems". The vast majority of human needs were met within the family — which frequently encompassed several households. Catastrophies like fires, floods, epidemics and other major needs were met by the whole community, as typified, for example, by "barn raisings" among the Amish and other Pennsylvania German religious sects.

The farm was a basic economic unit for both the family and society as a whole. It was operated and maintained by the manual labor of all able-bodied members of the family. The basic rhythm of life and ordering of activities was governed by the Sun and the Seasons; a system of governance which provided families and communities with a great deal of flexibility for meeting the needs of family members, neighbors, and strangers.

These early rural communities were generally homogeneous because they tended to be settlements of people from a common homeland, of a common language and faith, — and in most places, without significant distinctions of caste or class. Birth, death, sickness, baptism, and marriage were community events; with almost everyone performing some kind of supportive role.

For the very reason that "neighborly helping" was a totally integrated element in the fabric of the Agrarian Age, and not conceptually distinct, we cannot really speak of an interfacing between the University and Volunteerism at that point in our history. In addition to the fact that this kind of neighborliness went on among students and faculty in the small, private, and often church-related colleges, the curriculum generally was oriented toward the "helping" professions; preparing students for subsequent apprenticeship for the Ministry, Medicine, Law, and Education. Therefore, whether in the village or the campus, life was personal, essentially stable, and place-oriented.

In the 19th Century, and progressively expanding through the mid-20th, all this underwent change; at first subtle, and then substantial. With the development of mining, which stoked the fires of the Industrial Revolution, work became less and less a family affair, and a family's livelihood was increasingly based upon productive activity separated from the home. Eventually the hub of American society moved from the farm to the factory. The close-knit and seamless fabric of rural life became tattered. Gaps developed between human needs and the abilities of family and community to meet those needs under the old forms of neighborliness.

Understandably, we believe, the early non-relationship between cloistered higher education and the rest of society continued for a time after the Industrial Revolution began to impact on agrarian America. As colleges were communities of though rather than labor, they were affected indirectly rather than directly by the labor-saving machine. But clearly, these indirect effects were substantial; most notably in a dramatically expanded view of the occupational ends of education and a corresponding growth of public higher education. Through the Morrill Act (Land Grant) of 1862, it became national policy to encourage State governments to focus on higher education, so as to stimulate the development of the "agricultural and mechanical arts".

As industrialization gained momentum, the earlier homogeneity of place was gradually superceded by the heterogeneity of urbanization — an end product of industrial growth, immigration from Europe and the Orient, and transmigration within America.

In the midst of this social and cultural turbulence, organized volunteerism was born. Because we are neither professional historians nor social scientists, it is not clear to us whether the Restricted and Universal types developed concurrently, or whether one preceded the other. We tend to believe they developed at more or less the same time because they were responses to different but coexisting conditions.

As ports and other cities of commerce became centers of industry, immigrants from Europe and the Orient, and migrants from rural areas expanded the urban population. Language, religion, and color were three primary factors which determined where people lived and the kind of work they could get. The greatest options were available to the white English-speaking newcomers who were already integrated in the established culture. By choice born of necessity, however, East Europeans, Scandinavians, English-speaking Catholics, and others settled in ethnic enclaves where they organized a variety of mutual aid associations, such as the Hibernian Society which was founded in 1853. A somewhat similar pattern developed among blacks; a growing number of whom migrated from the rural South. But there was a difference. In many instances black urban settlements were established, not by choice born of necessity, but by necessity born of law. Several cities established black territories by local ordinance.[1]

At the same time, however, in addition to the problems and solutions which were internal to these population groups, urban society-at-large was developing educational, recreational, and welfare needs which could no longer be met in the home or neighborhood. The latter half of the 19th and early 20th Centuries was the period when well-known contemporary national volunteer organizations were formed; such as the Red Cross, the YM and YWCA, and the Girl Scouts and Boy Scouts. And while the Hibernian Society and the NAACP were established to serve the needs of their own brethren, the universal type of volunteerism was organized to serve strangers; people whose eligibility for receiving services was based simply on need.

Like industrial society itself, volunteerism became a creature of the time machine, the clock. In the mine and factory temporal flexibility was radically dimished. From a nation of self-employed farmers and small entrepreneurs, whose day began with the Sun and the Cock's crow, we became a nation of employers and employees, regulated by the clock and the factory whistle.

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[1] John Hope Franklin, From Slavery to Freedom, (New York, Alfred A. Knopf, 1967), p. 436

Our concern here is not to list the organized progeny of volunteerism, nor to elaborate on the wide range of services they were established to perform. Rather, we wish to emphasize that these responses to human need were organized to tap the neighborly attitudes and helping instincts of people during non-working hours.

The modern concept of volunteerism developed as a corollary of the concepts of "spare time" and "leisure time" (Parenthetically, it may also be said that volunteer service was seen as "non-work"). And because the Industrial Revolution produced a more clearly identifiable class system based on income, and a new societal group — the Middle-Class, the typical American Volunteer of the Industrial Age continues to be the non-employed Middle-Class homemaker.[2] She represented the primary social group for whom the use of time remained most flexible. To be sure, though she had more "feee time" than many others, she, too, could be flexible only within the time constraints of a society in which the education of her children was a matter of law, and mealtime was determined — however indirectly, by company policy. In other words, there were times when she had to be at home. There were legions of others, of course — men, women, youth —who performed voluntary service after work or after school; but the Middle-Class homemaker was most typical.

One partial exception to this was to be found on the American college campus. During the Industrial Age a more overt relationship began to emerge between higher education and organized volunteerism. With perhaps the single exception of the Cooperative Extension Service, however, the relationship was essentially informal and extra-curricular.

For many generations college and university students, with the support of individual faculty and other members of the campus community — such as YM and YW Secretaries and College Chaplains, have been extensively involved in providing volunteer service to many populations in need beyond the campus. Because learning was seen to be the primary work of students, however, most student volunteer service was performed on weekends. And though they were not homemakers, as higher education was predominantly private, and enrollment was small by current standards, even on the campus organized universal volunteerism was a Middle-Class phenomenon. It was performed by those who could afford it.

During the Industrial Age, this was the normative pattern of the link between Volunteerism and the University until as recently as the 1950's.

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[2] U.S., ACTION, Americans Volunteer - 1974, a Statistical Study of Volunteers in the United States, (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1975), p.3

As an institution, the University did little to accommodate student interest in volunteer service beyond a general accommodation to a varied range of extra-curricular clubs, programs, and Greek letter societies.

The decade of the Fifties was the beginning of the twilight period of transition from the Industrial to the Technological Age. The foundations of the Industrial Revolution had been laid over the centuries in the academic centers of Europe. Therefore, while American higher education contributed to its growth, it had nothing to do with the birth of industry. In the case of the Technological Revolution, however, American higher education had a great deal to do with its birth.

Historians tend to agree that the beginnings of the Age of Technology are tied to the development of Radar and the Atomic Bomb in the mid-Forties. To use an image of Marshall McLuhan,[3] as the machine was an "extension" of man's arm, the electron and atomic particle were "extensions" of his mind; and this is the work of the university.

Before the end of this century's sixth decade, history's most nearly global war had ended, the United Nations Organization was founded, a new generation of servicemen died in Korea, the Supreme Court ruled that segregated education was unequal, the jet aircraft engine was in commercial use, the U.S.S.R. launched Sputnik, college enrollment began to climb, and American college students were labled "Silent".

Then, in 1960, some of you may remember that dramatic change in behavior when the "Silent Generation" literally changed their appearance overnight from campus to campus across the land. They were responding to what then was no more than an idea presented to a Michigan college audience by Presidential Candidate John F. Kennedy — the idea of a Corps for Peace.

This was a time when many traditional barriers — which represented both bondage and security — were falling; barriers of time and space and custom and law. As the world grew smaller, there was a growing sense of greater responsibility and interdependence in what came to be seen as a global village.

Having been silent, perhaps, out of a sense of helplessness and ineptitutde in the face of such foundation shaking, the notion of a Peace Corps, and then the development of the program, gave students and others a handle for action. But the Peace Corps could not contain the scope of the enthusiasm for change-oriented voluntary action and volunteerism; it flooded out to help carry the Civil Rights movement and related movements of the Sixties.

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[3] Marshall McLuhan, Understanding Media, (New York, McGraw-Hill, 1964).

Like our society itself, volunteerism is still in this period of transition, of ferment, and conflicting viewpoints. There are some, for example, who identify the origin of organized volunteerism with the founding of the Peace Corps.[4] As we have tried to show, organized volunteerism was born a century earlier. What happended in the early Sixties was that the organized universal type of volunteerism went public. And in less than two decades, Government-sponsored or supported volunteerism has been replicated in many nations, as well as in many states and municipalities in America. In addition to this record of growth, however, we believe there are other significant factors which deserve more attention than they have received.

As practitioners, one of the things we hear is that certain of today's minorities — especially blacks — do not participate extensively in volunteerism. There is ample historical and contemporary evidence that Neighborly Helping is at least as endemic among blacks, Chicanos, and American Indians as among any other minority or majority. There is also extensive evidence that these minorities have learned survival skills at least as well as others, and over the years have operated their own intra-group volunteer programs. What is true is that until government stepped into the field of volunteerism, the organized universal type was essentially closed to these minorities.

With the advent of a sense of identity and kinship based on wealth during the Industrial Age, there developed also a sense of difference between the providers of service — the volunteers, and the recipients of service. Much current volunteer literature still speaks of the "haves" and the "have nots". But this is a distinction which is not operative in Neighborly Helping, nor was it operative within the Mediated-Restricted form. It appears that these were labels coined by the dominant, essentially Middle-Class, society. The Universal form of volunteerism was for those who could afford it. And in spite of its altruistic intentions, it shared in the colonialist attitude and paternalistic values of that period of American and Western Civilization.

Whereas blacks were among the earliest and continuous migrants to the cities of the North and West — a migration closely associated with industrialization, their extended geographic and social isolation was not analogous to the socio-economic circumstances of a group of alien settlers in a strange environment. It was the result of cultural and legal sanctions of American society.

Over the years U.S. Census data have indicated that as blacks became urbanized, levels of education and family income increased. What the data does not show is that frequently, as in the Agrarian Age, it took all able-bodied members of the family to produce the income which on a statistical basis, may compare favorably with non-black families whose income is produced by one employed member. And aside from the fact that black Middle-Class income has always been lower than that of the white Middle-Class, even having equivalent income did not mean they had the same equality of opportunity to choose to become fully integrated into the Industrial Age society and culture. In certain respects, therefore, while learning to survive as residents of northern industrial centers, even to the extent that some of them prospered, the values and style of the black family continued to be rooted in the Agrarian Age.

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[4] U.S., ACTION, Report of the International Conference on Volunteer Service, Vienna, Austria, June 27 - July 2, 1976, (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1976, Introduction)

In a sense, we believe, because American society in the Industrial Age passed blacks by, in terms of their relationship to the universal type of volunteerism, American blacks have skipped an entire era. Organized universal type volunteerism did not become a genuine option for blacks and other minorities until volunteerism went public after the Technological Age had already begun.

In the Agrarian Age, identity and kinship were rooted in geography. With industrialization, who you were became a matter of wealth or the lack of it. And in the Age which was introduced by the Atomic Bomb, the identity of persons, communities and nations — as well as the relationships of each, is a matter of power. In the 1960's life became more broadly politicized. Many persons, groups, and nations who still tend to be viewed as "have nots" demonstrated an unprecedented ability to control their own destinies and to impact on the formerly secure realms of the "haves".

You may view the creation of the Peace Corps as altruistic, self-serving, or somewhere in between. But political interpretations notwithstanding, with the creation of the Peace Corps a national government was responding to the notion that despite the differences and conflicts which divide the world, we are all residents of a global village in which the uncontrolled or irresponsible release or exercise of power could spell disaster.

In conclusion, then let us briefly cite some of the features and effects of this new form of volunteerism as it coexists with the continuing earlier forms.

Overall, governmental action changed the composition and broadened the purpose of universal volunteerism. These changes, in turn, have transformed volunteerism's style, expanded its objectives, and have eroded its "leisure time" definition.

1. As already noted, these new public programs opened the door of universal volunteerism to those who had been excluded. They made it affordable to segments of society who, during the Industrial Age, did not have access to the subsidy of private wealth; the poor, the young, the elderly, minorities, and others.

2. Secondly, as a reflection of technology, which is the art of how we do things, volunteers were enlisted to

solve problems rather than to simply meet needs. The primary purpose shifted from caretaking to development, and much recruitment and placement focused on specialist rather than generalist skills.

3. Thirdly, though volunteers had special talents and skills, there was a deliverate effort to avoid earlier paternalistic styles by training volunteers to serve as equals, if not subordinates, to the recipients of their service.

4. Fourth, as a result of this egalitarian style, it was discovered that volunteers gained while they gave. In addition to making it possible for us now to recognize that volunteers have always had a self-interest, volunteerism now openly includes among its objectives a variety of values for the volunteer.

5. And finally, because the government-sponsored programs were for full-time limited term service, it has begun to emerge as an alternative to employment and schooling, rather than as a leisure-time, after-work, or after-school option. Private industry itself has begun to provide "sabbatical" time for employees who wish to perform volunteer service.

Given this picture, then, what of the roles of the university?

What had been an essentially informal and extra-curricular relationship between the University and Volunteerism in the Industrial Age, has now become formal and curricular — as evidenced by this conference.

This change, like public volunteerism itself, has been facilitated by the infusion of public money in both public and private higher education for such purposes as social scientific research, Continuing Education and Alternative Education.

It is all to the good that the intellectual resources of our society, which are concentrated in our colleges and universities, have the opportunity to add to our knowledge of volunteerism. From our perspective as practitioners, however, we see three weaknesses in the way higher education impacts on the current state of the art.

1. First, we do not perceive a system of research priorities related to volunteerism as a body of knowledge. We do not know, but we suspect, that much social scientific research related to volunteerism is a part of a different frame of reference. For example, Aging, or Unemployment, or the Nature of Organization. In other words, a research project on elderly volunteers, for example, may be one study among many others which include the health

of the elderly, income of the elderly, remarriage among the elderly, and other factors which have nothing to do with volunteerism.

2. Secondly, for a number of reasons which need not be gone into here, one impact of the Technological Revolution has been to lower the priority of one of the traditional roles of the University : namely, to be the critic of the contemporary age. Therefore, we believe what we have attempted to do in this paper is what the university should be doing. There is a need for Historians of volunteerism who could help to identify issues for research which could have early utility for practitioners.

3. Finally, then, it seems to us that while Departments and Institutes of Continuing Education have been increasingly providing educational opportunities for practitioners like us, we believe there is a glut of training in administration. Here, too, we believe, is another example of technological fall-out. Because Technology introduced the concepts of systems analysis and management, a body of knowledge and techniques were developed which are now being applied to any number of institutional and organizational fields. We believe we practitioners could benefit from additional subjects in a continuing education format; such as Changing Roles of Volunteers, and presentations of the results of various research projects and comparative analysis. In other words, we believe there is an overemphasis on questions of "How to", and an underemphasis on "What", "Why", and "Who".

We find volunteerism to be a significant, valuable, and exciting field. Like other institutions, change in the past came slowly. In a time of rapid change, however, we believe a long view can provide a perspective and a sense of direction which will help us keep our feet, as well as our heads.

The Professional Preparation of Practicing Voluntary Action Leaders:

A Role for the University

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Introduction

Whenever any service performed repeatedly in society gains formal recognition as a specific and specialized occupation, practitioners of the occupation and persons who benefit from its practice become concerned with the educational preparation and competencies which practitioners require to fulfill their professional obligations. Volunteer administration is now emerging as an occupation with its own distinctive professional status. As Harriet Naylor (1975, p. 2) described the situation: "A special function, volunteer administration, is a new career option attracting altruistic, able people who need professional level education to perfect a philosophy, a body of knowledge and discipline to apply skills effectively and ethically."

Universities have a potentially important role in the professional preparation of practicing volunteer administrators, though the exact nature of that role has yet to be clearly defined. Some needs, possibilities, and potential problems pertaining to the professional education and development of volunteer administrators through university graduate programs are discussed in this paper.

Perspectives on the Professional Education of Volunteer Administrators

That volunteer administrators need educational preparation--both for career entry and continuing education--is not generally questioned, but the kind of education and development they need and the appropriate delivery systems and professional certification they require are open issues. Many persons in the field of volunteerism advise against creating a specialized degree program in volunteer administration, either because they feel that too little information is available about volunteer administration as an occupational practice to warrant such a far-reaching step or because they believe that programs for volunteer administrators should be interdisciplinary in nature. What seems to be clear is that volunteer administrators are not attracted to traditional college curricula which they believe are inappropriate to their learning needs.

In the past few years, several studies and conferences have been focused on the educational needs of volunteer administrators. In 1976, the National Learning Resources Center conducted the most recent and comprehensive study, the findings of which need to be reviewed seriously by universities as they consider developing curriculum offerings in volunteer administration. The study offered these insights:

1. Volunteer administrators perceived their most important learning needs to be (1) training volunteers, (2) management, administration, and supervision of volunteers and volunteer programs, and (3) recruitment of volunteers.

2. The volunteer administrators surveyed identified their major learning objective as the acquisition of knowledge itself; they were interested in preparing themselves to do a better job. Forty-five per cent of the respondents stated this as their learning goal. Only 20 per cent expected to get a more challenging and better paying job as a result of their learning; 18 per cent wanted an academic degree or certification.

3. Of those who were interested in earning a degree, 41 per cent of the administrators surveyed preferred a generic degree in administration, and 32 per cent wanted a specialized degree in volunteer administration.

4. The preferred learning modalities were, first, one-day workshops within driving distance of home and, second, accessible, inexpensive or free information services on demand.

College and university efforts to meet the educational needs of volunteer administrators are usually of four types: (1) associate of arts degree programs, (2) certificate programs, (3) non-credit workshops, and (4) credit courses in voluntary leadership. Graduate programs in volunteer administration are presently beginning to be developed.

The growing recognition of the professional nature of volunteer administration is reflected in the career ladder for volunteer administrators in the Department of Labor's Directory of Occupational Titles. The highest step in the ladder is the Director of Volunteer Services; the qualifications for this position call for experience equivalent to a masters degree plus administrative or supervisory experience.

If the status of volunteer administration as an occupationl practice is to be advanced, considerably more attention should be directed to graduate levels of educational development, i.e., to professional education. Professional education for practicing volunteer administrators goes beyond the "how-to-do" level of training given to assist persons to perform specific functions within specific agencies. Persons trained at this level contribute services but are seldom able to advance an occupational practice toward professional recognition.

Professional education for practicing volunteer administrators involves systematic study and skill development in three major areas. First, the volunteer administrator acquires familiarity with the knowledge base of volunteer administration, competency in the application of knowledge to specific problems and in the synthesis and production of knowledge. Second, volunteer administrators study the normative aspects of volunteer administration, the rationale for and the social significance of the service provided, the value system which supports volunteerism, and the ethics of professional practice. The normative dimension of professional practice is derived from a study of the historical, philosophical, social, economic, and political facets of volunteerism. Third, volunteer administrators study systematically the art of practice and enhance competencies through examination of problems of practice, through simulations and through various forms of action learning on the job.

Universities which respond to the need for professional education should approach this task with caution; additional research and synthesis of present research is needed. A fuller picture of volunteer administration as an occupational practice needs to be developed, including analyses of the specific tasks which volunteer administrators perform and the competencies which these tasks require.

Some competencies can be acquired through courses offered by academic departments such as business administration, educational administration, adult/continuing education, sociology, urban planning, among others. As yet unresolved is the question of which university academic unit should assume responsibility for the development and management of programs in volunteer administration. Programs could, with justification, be located in business administration, urban planning, adult/continuing education, and other academic units. Applications of the knowledge base of these disciplines may need to be made specific to volunteer administration; new courses or learning experiences pertaining to the theory and practice of volunteer administration may need to be developed.

A Case Study: The Virginia Tech Experience

In response to requests from volunteer administrators in the greater Roanoke, Virginia area for responsible professional training and development within an academic context, the Adult/Continuing Education Program Area of the College of Education at Virginia Tech developed and delivered three graduate courses in Volunteer Management and Training, one course in each of three quarters of the 1976-77 academic year. Several planning meetings were held in advance of the first course to identify specific needs and preferences of potential students. Informal assessments were made of the degree of interest that such a volunteer curriculum would elicit. From these planning sessions a series of tentative course topics were developed and later revised.

Students were recruited by a simple, inexpensive course announcement which was sent to a mailing list of a thousand persons associated with public or private voluntary agencies who were identified by the Coordinator of the Roanoke Voluntary Action Center. The Coordinator had a strong personal and professional commitment to seeing a graduate level seminar offered, and she invested considerable personal energy in planning the program and promoting it once it was scheduled.

To be eligible for enrollment, students were required to be admitted to the VPI & SU Graduate School. About twenty persons were ultimately involved in this training program. A stable core of about 11 students was enrolled in the curriuclum for all three academic quarters. Students were permitted to enroll for only one course, if they desired; they were not asked to commit themselves for all three courses. For this three course sequence, topics were organized into nine modules, and three modules were taught during each course. The modules contained these topics: (1) the management process, (2) styles of leadership, decision making, and problem solving, (3) organizational structure and climate, (4) the volunteer movement: historical and sociological perspectives, (5) public relations, image building, and marketing the concept of volunteerism, (6) recruitment, job design, and orientation procedures, (7) motivating volunteers and sustaining commitment, (8) training volunteers and professionals who use volunteers, and (9) funding: sources of support; budgeting; and costs of using volunteers.

The objectives of this series of training events were to assist participants to gain knowledge, understanding, attitudes, and skills pertaining to several aspects of volunteer management and training. Specifically, participants were assisted to achieve several major objectives: (1) skills in managing volunteer systems, (2) skills in designing and conducting volunteer programs, (3) skills in marketing volunteerism, and (4) understanding the volunteer movement in the United States.

Of the students who participated in this new curriculum, sixty four per cent had never been enrolled in a graduate level course before their involvement with this program. Four students enrolled in the program had previously done graduate work; one had completed a masters degree. Having these courses focused directly on volunteer management and training and within short driving distance of home and work apparently served as the stimulus for the majority of these students to enroll in graduate courses at this time. However, as the experimental program ends, 58% plan to work towards a masters degree, either in Adult/Continuing Education or Business Administration.

Near the beginning of the third quarter, students were asked to evaluate their experience in the program. Students rated the courses excellent. They responded most favorably to the informal, flexible seminar format, the variety of teaching/learning activities, the relevance of course content to their professional interests, and the classroom atmosphere which they felt was conducive to challenging intellectual stimulation and warm classroom interactions. Students valued their own active involvement in the class and the responsibility and opportunity they had to integrate theoretical material into their practical experience. They also spoke with satisfaction of the benefits of discussion with professional colleagues whose experience and insights were stimulating and helpful to them.

Although there was little disappointment reflected in their evaluatory statements, some class participants stated that they liked least those aspects of the course which required reading reviews of research in the academic literature, writing project papers, and preparing for or listening to student presentations. Other aspects of the volunteer course experience which students liked least were associated with travel time and distance, registration formalities, and presentations by outside speakers which on occasion seemed somewhat redundant or overlapping. Although most students enjoyed the flexibility and informality of the course work and the learning atmosphere, a few questioned whether this same informality meant too little structure in the class.

When asked to name five general topics most crucial to a university course in volunteer management and training, most students named motivation and retention of volunteers, recruitment, assessing the needs of volunteers and making appropriate placements, and evaluation and recognition of volunteers. Many students were aware of their need to become more sophisticated in the technology of management but were not sure what the particular components of such training would be.

Problems and Issues in University Delivery Systems

The Roanoke program can best be viewed as a one-time project which came to be because of the propitious timing of coincidences: a recognized need for graduate level training by some volunteer administrators, one of whom gave leadership to the program; the growing interest and involvement in volunteerism by faculty at Virginia Tech; and Dr. Shaw's availability to develop and teach the courses. Delivering off-campus programs for part-time students is not a new experience at Virginia Tech; the Adult/Continuing Education Program Area presently offers the masters degree in three off-campus locations and the post-masters degree in another.

In some ways, however, the Roanoke venture did entail a new delivery system model. Specifically, the courses were offered as discrete courses for a specific target audience and not as part of an intact degree program. Participants could elect to take the courses for credit or non-credit, although most students elected the credit option. In short, the program attempted to meet the inservice training needs of practicing volunteer administrators through a series of courses specifically designed to accommodate their job requirements. The intention was to provide graduate level education geared toward the immediate concerns of practitioners who wanted to enhance their job performances but who were not for the most part interested in committing themselves to the long-term requirements of graduate professional education.

Students who entered this program had received their previous training in volunteer management and training through a non-credit short-term workshop model. Such a training model is characterized by conceptual presentations of a highly condensed nature and participative activities in which students share ideas and apply new knowledge and skills.

The emphasis is on the "how" and not on the "why." One problem which surfaced rapidly in the Roanoke program was how to reconcile the workshop model with the professional education model. The professional education model stresses the theoretical and philosophical base of practice. It entails reading, interpreting, and applying research and conceptual materials which may have little apparent relevance to a specific problem of practice. It also entails opportunities to enhance competencies of practice through real life or simulated demonstrations of ability, subjected to review and evaluation by a qualified professional.

As is almost always the case in any group of students, a wide range of backgrounds, professional experience, and academic skills were represented in this seminar group. As professionals functioning full-time in demanding job contexts, they believed that they had limited time to do outside academic assignments. Even though the students realized upon assuming the obligation of a graduate credit course that there would be substantial responsibility connected with that endeavor, their responsibilities as students were peripheral to their work and family lives. Students found that a graduate credit course forced a certain discipline on the teaching/learning situation which would not have been the case in a typical in-service training workshop experience. To some, the course requirements tended to be more arbitrary as well as more stringent than they had expected or desired.

The challenge in this experimental course was to provide a quality educational product in the tradition of graduate professional education standards to students whose orientations and expectations were more inclined in the direction of the pragmatic, existential problem-solving and how-to-do characteristics of the workshop model.

In this kind of situation, effective teaching with professional volunteer managers requires that the instructor mediate content, monitor the experience, but primarily function as consultant, facilitator, and resource guide.

The expectations of the students, their sponsoring agency, and the university were sometimes in conflict. The dilemma of the teacher was how to reconcile the interests, needs, and limitations of students with the academic standards of the sponsoring university. One of the basic tenets of adult education is that no learning experience can be effective unless the needs of the adults to be served, their backgrounds, limitations and special concerns are considered in the preparation of learning objectives. In this series of courses, the teacher performed a bridging function between the students' desire for immediate application and the more academic approach inherent in the university course structure. In courses of an in-service type, students are motivated to learn to improve their competencies as practitioners; the teacher has standards to uphold which are derived from a graduate professional education model.

One recurrent challenge in this course sequence was how to connect the problems which students described from their working situations with explanations or rationalizations in terms of theory or experience bases. In this group of working professionals, there was a tendency to depend perhaps too much on the sharing of anecdotal experience. While this practice was generally pleasurable and had its value, the teacher had to relate these informal inputs to a knowledge and theory base. The instructor had the challenge of expanding and enriching commonplace experience and placing it in the larger perspective in which analyses and generalizations can be made and behavior predicted.

That the university has a responsibility and some potent resources for providing educational opportunities for the professional development of practicing volunteer administrators seems beyond question, but exactly how the university should or might best respond to this need is not certain. Clearly several delivery systems models are required. These include non-credit, short-term workshops; credit courses treating various aspects of volunteerism; and degree programs ranging from associates of arts, bachelors, masters, and doctoral. The model used in Roanoke has substantial promise. It provides graduate level courses geared toward the work problems of practicing volunteer administrators which can be applied toward a masters degree in adult and continuing education or used as part of the continuing education experience of the administrator.

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WEST GEORGIA COLLEGE'S ROLE
IN PREPARING VOLUNTEERS IN
NORTH CENTRAL GEORGIA

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INTRODUCTION

In recent months, a growing number of human services agencies are requesting the assistance of volunteers to help alleviate staffing shortages. The Department of Human Resources (DHR) in the State of Georgia is one such agency. Because of past training provided by the Department of Continuing Education at West Georgia College, early in 1975 District IV of DHR requested assistance in providing training for new agency volunteers. Funds for this program were obtained through a grant funded by Title I (HEA, 1965). "Training for Volunteers in Human Services" began in April, 1976, and terminated in March, 1977.

A series of workshops were conducted in each of four multi-county areas in the thirteen counties of the DHR district. Volunteers who were working, or wanted to work with any human service agency, public or private, were eligible to participate. Also, volunteer coordinators for each county were encouraged to attend.

The purpose of the project was to provide training for 300 volunteers and staff persons, which would enable them to become more effective as non-professional, short-term helping persons. Instruction was provided by West Georgia College faculty in the areas of:

1. basic helping skills
2. assessment of needs for the client population
3. defining human services provided by other agencies
4. using and compiling a human services directory for each of the thirteen counties
5. training of future trainers of volunteers

Coordination was administered by the Department of Continuing Education.

During the planning of the proposal, the question was raised: "Is the college or university equipped to provide this training, or are they merely interested in jumping on the volunteerism bandwagon?" The question was raised over and over during the following year by both service agency personnel and college staff.

It is hoped that the experience at West Georgia College with the training of volunteers in human services will provide some insight into this question. Because of a number of factors beyond the college's realm of control, there have probably been more questions raised than have been answered.

The purpose of this paper is to examine the results of an evaluation of a one-year training project conducted by the Department of Continuing Education at West Georgia College. This evaluation will focus on; (1) the appropriateness of the training for volunteers, (2) the effectiveness of the training in improved delivery of services, and (3) the appropriateness of West Georgia College as the vehicle for such training. Some specific conclusions have been drawn from the evaluation results. Also, some generalized conclusions, which may be of particular interest to conference participants, have been drawn from the experience of the authors in planning, developing, conducting, and evaluating this project.

TRAINING DESIGN

The target group for the project consists of volunteers from age 18 to 80 plus, both male and female, from the illiterate to graduate degreed. Because of the diversity of backgrounds anticipated to participate, program design was based on the concept that persons who take initiative in planning their own learning activities learn more and learn better than those who sit at the feet of teachers passively waiting to be taught. [Knowles, 1976]

Therefore, the learning activities were planned to be proactive. Participants were encouraged to verbalize questions and many small group activities were planned to encourage rapport among learners.

Training was provided in four phases:

> Phase I, which was conducted for all volunteers, included an introduction to volunteerism, an overview of the human services network, and a general orientation to helping theory.
>
> Phase II, also for all volunteers, consisted of an introduction to basic helping skills.
>
> Phase III, for 2 persons from each county, one DHR staff person and one volunteer, consisted of an intensive 2-day workshop on training of volunteer trainers.
>
> Phase IV, for selected volunteers from each of the 13 counties, included identification of local resources and developing a local human services directory.

In addition, the project provided certain printed materials such as: the volunteer handbook, a sample service directory, and various exercises and background information.

EVALUATION

Participants were requested to complete a questionnaire during the last training session and volunteer coordinators and college administrators were mailed questionnaires. Two-hundred and sixteen (216) were distributed and sixty-one (61) returned.

The results of the evaluation were so limited that no specific conclusions were drawn, although the general tone of the responses was positive. There was agreement among volunteers, volunteer coordinators, and administrators that the training provided was appropriate, and that it resulted in improved volunteer performance. This improvement was seen in the areas of listening and responding to clients, improved understanding of human services network, and improved morale.

There was not, however, agreement among community leaders as to the value of training or the appropriateness of West Georgia College as the training provider. While some responses were overwhelmingly positive, others were almost as overwhelmingly negative. They essentially cancelled each other.

Since the survey responses did not provide enough data from which to formulate definite conclusions, the authors reviewed past experiences with the training project and drew some general conclusions:

1. Based on demographic data available through registration forms, the typical volunteer involved in the training was: female, aged 36-55, with a high school education, engaged in a semi-professional occupation. The training was felt to be appropriately designed and conducted for this group.

2. There seems to be no real way to judge the effectiveness of the training based on survey responses. However, volunteer effectiveness depends on a number of other factors, as well as training, including assignment, follow-up, support services, and supervision. Therefore, the authors could make no firm conclusions regarding the effectiveness of training, in terms of improved performance

3. The authors concluded that West Georgia College is an appropriate provider of training for several reasons:
   —the college has the resources to plan, develop, and conduct training for volunteers;
   —as part of the state university system, supported by public funds, West Georgia College has a commitment to Continuing Education at all levels;
   —the college has the facilities for training various numbers of people, from small groups to large bodies;
   —the college has a public relations staff which can provide comprehensive publicity. The Department of Human Resources does not have district or county staff with public relations as the primary assignment;
   —the college has facilities for the printing of training materials. The faculty also serves as a resource for the development of printed materials;
   —college sponsorship has positive influence on the community which is enhanced by the awarding of continuing education units.

Faculty members should be aware of the levels of education and the sophistication of the volunteers, and be able to adapt teaching styles to these levels. The authors screened faculty members to find those who could adapt their teaching methods to meet the needs and abilities of the participants. [Action, 1972]

CONCLUSIONS

The two major problems that arose during the project were inadequate recruitment, and lack of follow-through by Department of Human Resources staff. Both these problems were related, and may explain the few responses to the questionnaire.

Before the training program was developed, the authors initiated a meeting with the District Coordinator of the Department of Human Resources and his top staff. The program developed was in response to their assessment of training needs for volunteers. In additon, they pledged their support and agreed to secure staff involvement in the project.

Prior to the approval of funding for this project, one of the authors met with the district-wide Volunteer Coordinators Council, composed of county-level Department of Human Resources staff members who had responsibility for recruiting, assigning and evaluating volunteers. At that time, input and support were requested from the organization and individuals. The volunteer coordinators agreed orally to recruit volunteers for the training and to secure training sites for those sessions to be conducted off campus.

After funding was approved, but before the project actually began, the project director again met with the Volunteer Coordinators Council. Again, their support was solicited, and again they expressed such support. They did express some reservations about the number of expected participants, feeling that not that many could be recruited.

The number of participants was estimated to be three hundred (300) persons. The actual number of participants was one hundred and seventy-six (176) persons, of which forty-nine (49) were Department of Human Resources staff. Not even half of the projected number of volunteers were recruited, and most of these were persons doing volunteer work primarily for the Department of Human Resources. Very few volunteers from other agencies were recruited, although this had been expressly requested prior to funding.

Two factors probably influenced the level of participation. Most of the volunteer coordinators (11 out of 13) are employed part-time, carrying a reduced caseload in addition to their duties as volunteer coordinators. Many have had little or no training in recruiting, assigning, and evaluating volunteers.

Although certain volunteer coordinators were most helpful, the lack of commitment to volunteerism by the Department of Human Resources as an organization greatly detracted from the potential indicated during the early planning of the program.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Future training programs for volunteers will exist only if they are designed to meet the needs and interests of the participants as they see them. Thus, it is strongly recommended that the potential learners (and not their supervisors) be involved in making decisions about the program's objectives. [Benter, McCormick, Woodin, Cunningham, Wolf, 1972]

Because the target group was not strongly involved in the planning of the program, a "need gap" developed. The authors designed a program based on the vocalizaiton of "what ought to be." Those describing the "what oughts" failed to support their demands by either attending the sessions themselves, or by encouraging their staff to participate. It is crucial that the prospective learner be included in the planning of the learning situation. [Knowles, 1972]

Once the target group has demonstrated support of the program, it is necessary to obtain the commitment of the agencies involved. Without this commitment, success is doomed. The poor level of DHR commitment made implementation a difficult chore.

In additon to DHR failure to support the program, it was observed that seven out of twenty college administrators were either neutral, ambivalent, or negative concerning the college's role in training.

It is therefore recommended that before a college considers involvement in the training of volunteers, the following steps be taken:

1. survey of needs of target training group and the community to be served;
2. clear definition of purpose and objectives to be presented to community at large;
3. college administrators be informed prior to the project of the scope of the program;
4. agencies to be involved in the direct training be firmly committed, in writing, to the program;

In essence, a pre-training training program is necessary to obtain the support of the persons indirectly involved in the program. College administrators, volunteer supervisors, and the community to be served should be educated about the purpose, goals, and benefits of the training of volunteers in human services.

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Volunteers

In order to evaluate the program "Training for Volunteers in Human Services" it would be extremely helpful if you would fill out the following questionnaire on the effect of the training. Please indicate to the right of each question your opinion by placing the number of the question in the proper column.

Example: 8. Pick Conner does not know beans about volunteer training.

SA	A	NN	D	SD
				8

SA = Strongly Agree, A = Agree, NN = Neither Agree nor Disagree, D = Disagree, SD = Strongly Disagree.

	SA	A	NN	D	SD
1. The training was just what I needed.	2	1			
2. The trainers talked over my head.		1		7	
3. The training helped me to understand the importance of my work as a volunteer.	2	5	1		
4. I did not learn anything from the training.		1		3	4
5. I feel that now I do a better job as a volunteer.	2	4	2		
6. The people I work with seem to appreciate my work more now.		3	5		
7. Clients talk more openly to me about problems.		5	3		
8. I am able to listen to clients' better than I did before.	2	5	1		
9. My understanding of clients' needs and problems is greater now.	1	7			
10. I have not changed the way I do volunteer work.		4	1	3	
11. I learned a lot about the various roles volunteers are expected to perform.	1	4	2	1	
12. I am more involved with volunteer work now than I was before the training.	1	4	2		
13. I feel more confident about my work as a volunteer.	1	7			
14. My relationship with clients has improved since the training.	2	6			
15. I found the training interesting, informative and generally helpful.	3	5			

Coordinators & Administrators

In order to evaluate the program "Training for Volunteers in Human Services" it would be extremely helpful if you would fill out the following questionnaire on the effect of the training. Please indicate to the right of each question your opinion by placing the number of the question in the proper column.

Example:	SA	A	NN	D	SD
8. Rick Conner does not know beans about volunteer training.					8

SA = Strongly Agree, A = Agree, NN = Neither Agree nor Disagree, D = Disagree, SD = Strongly Disagree.

	SA	A	NN	D	SD
1. The volunteers who participated in the training have a better understanding of their relationship to clients and to the agency.		2	1		
2. The volunteers vocalized a positive response to the training.		3			
3. The volunteers said they did not learn anything from the training.					3
4. Volunteers now have a better understanding of human service agencies.	1	2			
5. There has been a definite improvement in the work of our volunteers.		1	2		
6. The training content was just what our volunteers needed.		3			
7. Our volunteers show a better understanding of client's needs and problems.	1	2			
8. Our volunteers do not show any improvement since the training.			1	2	
9. Our volunteers have improved their relationships with clients.		3			
10. Most of our volunteer work could be done by people without training.				1	2
11. Overall, our volunteer performance has improved.		2	1		
12. West Georgia College should offer more training for volunteers like this.	1	2			
13. Additional training is needed for volunteer coordinators.	1	1	1		
14. Administrators have a clear understanding of the role of volunteers in human service agencies.		2		1	

Please indicate your response to the statements listed below relating to the College's role in training and administering of volunteers in North Central Georgia. A wide range of response is offered: SA, strongly agree; A, agree; NN, neither agree nor disagree; D, disagree; SD, strongly disagree.

	Statement	SA	A	NN	D	SD
1.	The State should finance and supervise the training of volunteers in human services.	4	5	5	6	
2.	Training of volunteers should be the responsibility of the agency utilizing his/her services.	9	9	1		1
3.	Volunteers should seek their own sources of training.		4	3	5	8
4.	Colleges and universities should provide the opportunity for training of volunteers.	4	10	4	2	
5.	Public schools should be responsible for providing training of volunteers in human services.	1	5	4	7	2
6.	Religious and civic organizations should provide training to area volunteers.	1	10	2	4	3
7.	The college should offer training for volunteers as part of the community services program and no fees should be charged.	4	9	4	2	1
8.	Training should be a required prerequisite to volunteerism.	7	7	1	4	1
9.	The college has no responsibility in preparing volunteers.		2	4	4	10
10.	Volunteers are useless, and training will accomplish nothing.	2		1	3	14

Appendix 4

Please indicate your response to the statements listed below by marking one of the following: SA, strongly agree; A, agree; NN, neither agree nor disagree; D, disagree; SD, strongly disagree.

		SA	A	NN	D	SD
1.	Services in our community could have been expanded by greater use of volunteers.	19	12	2		
2.	Volunteers are not dependable.	1	5	7	13	7
3.	DHR expansion in the use of volunteers should be totally funded by the State.	2	5	11	12	3
4.	Volunteers should not have to participate in training programs because they receive no salaries.			1	28	13
5.	DHR expansion should utilize volunteers to save funds.	6	18	6	1	2
6.	Volunteers must participate in training programs to insure quality of performance.	12	13	4	3	1
7.	Training of volunteers should be provided within the agencies utilizing thier services.	6	23	2	2	
8.	Volunteer time should be counted and certified as work experience for future employment purposes.	10	19	2	2	
9.	Volunteers should be willing to pay for their own training.	2	1	3	15	12
10.	No evidence has been demonstrated in our community that volunteers are beneficial in the delivery of human services.	4		4	13	12

ESTABLISHING A LINK BETWEEN THE COLLEGE AND THE COMMUNITY: AN APPROACH

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Cal State Dominguez Hills

A viable link between the college and the community agencies where volunteers will be placed must be in existence before the impact of the volunteer program can be adequately assessed either on the campus or within the agencies. This paper will focus on key steps to consider in establishing such a link. The approaches are those that have been used by the Educational Participation in Communities Program (EPIC) at Cal State Dominguez Hills for the past two years. They will serve as a guide for those institutions that are just beginning or are in the planning stages of establishing a volunteer program on their campus. The information is based on the techniques that have served to make the EPIC Program effective.

Cal State Dominguez Hills is located in an urban area that serves a diverse population in terms of ethnicity, economic and social status. The EPIC Program is a volunteer service-learning program that recruits staudents that are enrolled at the college and place them in community agencies. The students serve as counselors, bilingual tutors, casework aides, intake workers and in a wide variety of other positions. The Program averages approximately 110 students over a three quarter period. The number of agencies that have requested the service of the Program is 150. The number of agencies that the Program is able to serve in a given quarter range from 30 to 50. This is due to the fact that students have the opportunity to choose where they would like to volunteer. Given the number of students and agencies that are associated with the Program in a particular quarter, it is necessary to have an effective system in operation in order to minimize problems that are associated with placements.

The first step in building a viable link between the college and the community is to conduct a needs assessment. The needs assessment should be conducted within the framework of the institutions commitment to meeting the needs of the surrounding community. The methods for carrying out the needs assessment can be conducted by using interview guidelines, surveys, questionnaires or through purposeful conversations. Key persons in the administrative area as well as faculty and students must be included in the sample for a broad view of the needs. Questions that focus on the thrust of the college in terms of community involvement, faculty members areas of interest, feasibility, cost and benefits should be a part of the data gathering instrument.

In terms of the needs assessment as it relates to the community agencies, the goals and objectives of the agencies must be explored. The history, funding source and the target population(s) are all areas that must be spelled out in order to define the needs adequately.

The second step in building a viable link between the college and the community consist of blending the needs of the institutions and that of the community agencies that you wish to become involved. This can be done through brainstorming meetings between key people on the college campus and agency representatives or by a committee that includes representatives from both groups as well as student participation and/or input.

Thirdly, establishing cooperative objectives that are of a general nature should be done by the college and community representatives. More definitive objectives should be spelled out by the individual agencies. The definitive objectives should include the expectations, the role of the faculty and the students as well as the agency personnel. Another step includes a provision for training of college and agency personnel and the students.

The fifth step involves establishing and maintaining a system of communication between the college and the agency personnel and the students. The system must include the college community which can be kept abreast through the campus newspaper, the faculty newsletter, division meetings, committee meetings and personal contacts. As for the community agencies, attendance at staff meetings frequent agency visits, regularyly scheduled training programs and seminars are all elements that can be included in the communication system. In terms of the students, telephoning, letters, the campus nespaper and regularly scheduled office hours are important elements to condider.

Evaluation of the link is the sixth step. It should be on-going and consistent to determine if the needs are being met or if they have been define adequately. Elements of the evaluation tool should include a provision for unaticipated occurences and a measurement for determining if the linkage is successful.

SUMMARY

This paper was not intended to give an in-depth approach of establishing a link between a college and the community it serves, rather it was submitted within the framework of voluntarism. That is, it is a system that can be adapted on any campus taking into full consideration of that particular campus.

HIGHER EDUCATION PROGRAMS FOR THE VOLUNTEER ADMINISTRATOR

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INTRODUCTION

Since 1971 a number of groups have made recommendations as to the appropriate content of educational programs for voluntary action leaders, particularly volunteer program administrators. A few surveys have been conducted to identify the educational *needs* as perceived by such leaders (cf., Smith,1976). However, we have had little systematic information about *actual* higher education *programs* themselves in this area, and too little sharing of such information. A sufficient number of colleges and universities now offer educational courses, workshops, or even programs (two or more different courses) in volunteer administration to provide at least some empirical basis for educational program recommendations in regard to existing programs or the implementation of new ones.

We report here the results of a very modest, unfunded pilot research project designed to assess recent experiences with programs (not single courses) in volunteer administration in American institutions of higher education. More specifically, our study is designed to assess: (1) progress in the development of such programs, (2) strategies and processes of program initiation and implementation, (3) the content of such programs, and (4) factors that influence the success or failure of these programs.

METHODOLOGY

The institutions surveyed constitute a very special kind of purposive sample, divided into two parts. In essence, we studied what might be termed a "reputational sample" of institutions, in the sense that we chose each institution for our study on the basis of recommendations by a panel of knowledgeable experts in the field. One part of the sample consists (for practical reasons as well as historical ones) of 10 institutions in California drawn in this manner, while the other part of the sample was drawn from the rest of the nation. In consulting with our panel of experts, we drew also on three national surveys of higher education opportunities for volunteer administrators: (1) a 1974 survey by the National Information Center on Volunteerism (NICOV, 1976), (2) a 1976 follow up to the NICOV survey by S. Jane Rehnborg (unpublished), and (3) a 1976 survey of about 300 faculty members and voluntary action leaders conducted by the Research Task Force of the Association of Voluntary Action Scholars (which included information on course offering in the field of voluntary action). The Rehnborg survey data were particularly important in our selection of the non-California portion of the sample.

The unpublished survey by Rehnborg deserves special comment here because it sheds some interesting light on the degree of turnover of higher education courses for volunteer administrators. Based on the list of institutions offering some kind of course (possibly only a workshop or institute) in the field, as indicated by the NICOV national survey in 1974, Rehnborg sent out 95 letters in August-September 1976 to the places listed asking about certification programs, if any, and seeking information on courses, workshops, etc. Replies were received eventually from about 60% of the institutions. Of these responding institutions, many had no courses or programs. It was clear that a large proportion of the institutions that had offered courses in 1974 were no longer doing so in 1976. However, some institutions still had their original courses or even additional ones, and new institutions had begun to offer such courses in the interim. The appropriate conclusion from the Rehnborg study is that turnover is very high in higher education courses for volunteer administrators. They are frequently present one year and gone the next. This is the background in terms of which the present study of programs (defined as two or more higher education courses) of higher education for volunteer administrators must be understood. It also explains why we used the particular sampling method we did. We wanted to be sure that we were able to get information on at least 20 programs so that modest generalization might be attempted. So far as we can tell, we have studied a substantial portion of all programs existing in the United States or that have existed, though only a much smaller fraction of all courses.

Data was gathered for our study, then, in April and May of 1977 with one or more respondents at each of 20 institutions of higher education, 10 from California and another 10 from eight other states around the country (Washington, New York, Massachusetts,Colorado, Maryland, Illinois,Delaware,& Ohio). For the full sample, there were as many community(two-year) colleges as there were four year colleges and universities. However, the California sample had 8 community colleges out of 10 institutions, while the national sample had just the reverse proportion. This probably reflects the "historical" factor alluded to earlier: The Chancellor's Office of the California Community Colege system helped support and sponsor a study group that designed a community college curriculum in volunteer administration a few years ago. That curriculum (cf., California Community Colleges, 1974) and its design process has served as a major stimulus to the formation of programs in California institutions at the level studied.

The interviews conducted were with only a couple of exceptions made by telephone, using a semi-structured (focused) interview schedule created by the authors (mainly the first author). Some screening had to be done with potential respondent institutions, in order to verify the existence, prior existence, or proposed existence of two or more different college level courses in volunteer administration. At some institutions, there were, are, or will be programs in related areas (e.g., in non-profit organization management, in voluntary association administration, in fund-raising management, in community services technology, etc.), but these were screened out of our sample. Also, at many institutions there are various courses offering college credit for off-campus internships or volunteer work in community organizations, usually in conjunction with a periodic discussion of the off-campus experience at a seminar on-campus, and often with the requirement of a term paper or report on the off-campus experience. These programs were also screened out of our sample. Finally, there were educational activities called or thought to be programs by our panel of experts but which turned out to be single courses, occasional usages of independent study programs for volunteer administration degrees, or brief workshops. These too were generally left out of our sample (with the exception of two systematic workshop series that led to Certificates, with each brief one-day workshop called a "course").[1]

As a result of our survey, our final sample of 20 institutions was divided into four categories:
I. Institutions which are conducting an on-going program in volunteer administration, with program being defined as a set of two or more different courses, completion of which results in a degree or in a certificate of completion or proficiency (which may itself partially satisfy requirements for a degree).
II. Institutions which offer at least one course in volunteer administration and either (a) are in the process of developing or of implementing (but not yet offering) a program; or (b) will definitely be offering at least two courses in the immediate future.
III. Institutions which have considered implementing a program, but have decided not to do so.
IV. Institutions which have offered a program but no longer do so.

We define as successful for present purposes institutions in Category I (providing the programs are not about to be phased out) and in Category II. There are 13 institutions of this sort in our sample. The remaining 7 are unsuccessful by the above definition, about evenly divided between Categories III and IV. The 13 successful institutions are also about evenly divided between the two Categories involved (7 in I; 6 in II).

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[1] This study does not cover, either, those institutions which offer various courses in one or more departments or professional schools that include material on some aspects of voluntary action. Such courses in community organization, voluntary associations, interest groups, etc. are quite numerous but do not constitute volunteer administration programs in the sense we have defined them.

OVERALL PROGRESS

Our data point up a number of aspects of the general progress made to date in higher education for volunteer administrators. To begin with, the field is obviously quite new in higher education. Most programs have been implemented or initiated (and sometimes rejected) in the past three years. Only 3 of the 20 programs were begun before 1970, all in the late 1960s. We are in a period of considerable activity both in terms of new programs and expansion (in content and number of students) of existing programs.

But progress seems to be very uneven. Programs in some institutions are in a no-growth state or have been (or are about to be) withdrawn. Some other institutions have decided not to implement programs after quite intensive investigation involving interaction with the volunteer community and needs identification surveys, with careful consideration by the institution's administration. However, most respondents at such institutions indicate that the decision not to go ahead is not a permanent one, but is subject to future review. Institutions are reluctant to take any risks on new programs in these times of general retrenchment in higher education, and programs for volunteer administrator education are often met with a hard-nosed fiscal scrutiny by higher education administrators. There is general reluctance by higher educational institutions to go ahead with such programs unless (a) a very substantial need can be demonstrated locally, thus guaranteeing the fiscal solvency of the new endeavor, or (b) the program can be begun at virtually no financial risk to the institution (or with that appearance, at least).

As suggested earlier, there is considerable variation with respect to the type of institution offering programs, including two-year community colleges, four year colleges with a few Masters Degree programs, and full universities offering Doctoral Degrees in various departments and professional schools. In California, perhaps for the special historical reasons described earlier, most programs and especially the successful ones are in community colleges. Elsewhere in the nation, this pattern does not hold, with successful programs being found as frequently in four-year colleges or universities as in two-year colleges. Not surprisingly, volunteer administration programs tend to be concentrated in higher education institutions in or near major population centers (metropolitan areas), where concentrations of volunteer programs and volunteer administrators can likewise be found.

Programs vary moderately in their breadth of content, though there is some core of common skills and knowledge found in most. There is considerably more variation in how the programs are organized and structured (hours of attendance required, pattern of course sessions, etc.). Outcomes also differ substantially among the programs studied. Some programs offer a Certificate for attendance at six one-day workshops (called "courses"), and one offered a Certificate for attendance at 12 two-hour workshops (it is now defunct). Other programs give their Certificate for satisfactory completion of one or two regular college level courses, while some require satisfactory completion of many more courses. One community college requires 50 quarter hours of credit in courses related to volunteer administration before awarding the Certificate. And a few institutions have volunteer administration as a specialization or major as part of a Masters Degree program in an allied field (e.g., Rehabilitation Administration; Planning and Administration).

Yet when one considers both the current state of existing programs and trends in the development of these programs, the norm in the short run at least appears to be granting a Certificate for a rather modest amount of college work. And Masters degree programs that have any specialization in volunteer administration are quite rare (only two in our sample).

Perhaps the most appropriate perspective from which to view the field of higher education in volunteer administration is as a field in process. On the basis of earlier analyses of developments in the field (Smith,1976) and our present findings, we would predict a general though probably gradual expansion of the field in the next five years or so. After that, the pace may quicken. A surprisingly significant number of institutions seem to have implemented or at least have considered implementing programs. And the awareness of volunteerism, voluntarism, and the voluntary sector even among the latter institutions has grown markedly in the past five years. We can expect these trends to be reinforced by the growing societal significance of voluntarism, combined with the increasing pressure from certain voluntary organizations for more and better education for volunteer administrators (e.g., from the Association for the Administration of Volunteer Services, and from the Alliance for Volunteerism).

It would be an error, then, to assess the state of the field simply by examining educational programs as they currently exist. Rather, one must assess as well what is being developed in the field, seek to learn what works and what does not, and try to understand why. Such an approach can be expected to provide some guidelines for the development of specific programs and for the general development of the field as well. Our findings throw some light on these issues.

PROGRAM INITIATION, DEVELOPMENT, AND IMPLEMENTATION

Our findings indicate rather clearly that program success, as defined earlier, requires generally that the initiation, development, and implementation stages of a program be integrated. The most significant factor in program success seems to be the active, persistent, and continuing committed involvement of one individual or a small group of individuals, involved themselves in or deeply concerned with the practice of volunteer administration. Most of the successful programs have been initiated, developed, and implemented by such persons. In some cases, such persons have only been active in the initiation and development phases, with implementation begun and then subsequently carried out by someone else, but this is not common among successful programs. Most decisions not to implement programs after serious consideration have been made in institutions where such persons have not been involved. Our interviews indicate that the number of such persons is increasing, which augurs well for the future of the type of educational programs we are studying.

Several additional factors in turn explain the critical importance of active, committed, persistent practitioner involvement. First, from the perspective of the volunteerism field, there must be linkages from educational ideas and proposals developed by national organizations or national leaders to implementation at the local level. Programs at specific institutions are often legitimated by local practitioner-activists by referring to national developments---plans, books, articles, curricula, conferences, etc. This suggests the importance of the role of such national organizations and leaders in the continuing growth of voluntarism, and particularly in the growth of higher education programs in the field.

At the local level, volunteer administrator professional groups (formal or informal) may often fail to act for a variety of reasons even having discussed their needs for higher educational programs in volunteer administration: lack of time, uncertainty as to how to act, insecurity in the face of "the higher education establishment,"discouragement at the failure of initial contacts, doubts as to the viability of such a program at a local college or university, inability to find someone on the "inside" of a local institution who really seems to care, etc. For a practitioner to teach in a program himself or herself, an advanced degree or teaching credential may be required.

Considerable persistence and no little sophistication is needed in dealing with the bureaucratic procedures and internal politics in most colleges and universities. As most of our respondents stress, the many complexities of program development and implementation in higher education institutions are not readily apparent to "outsiders"(or even to many insiders), and are difficult to deal with. Much trial and error learning is usually required, and this takes the persistence we referred to earlier. Most college administrators and faculty members have only a rudimentary understanding of the field of volunteerism, if any, and lack an awareness of its general role in our society.

Higher education in volunteer administration has no immediately obvious, "natural home" or power base in the institutional structure (one of our respondents commented that it took her six months "to figure out who to deal with"). Few institutions, indeed virtually none, provide much in the way of "start up" or program development expenses beyond in-kind contributions of administrator or faculty time and available space, classrooms or other facilities. In those rare instances where there have been development funds, they have come from outside grants, usually from a private foundation.

Beyond the crucial role of the key, persistent, practitioner-activist in bringing about most successful programs, our findings also suggest that successful programs are characterized by careful attention to the following factors:

(1) Become involved with an institution that is innovative, flexible (at least in some of its internal divisions), and willing to take some modest risks if they seem likely to have positive results in new and needed higher education programs.

(2) Develop very early an understanding of the institution's financial system, especially budgetary implications and accountability requirements that affect educational requirements. Virtually without exception, new programs are required to "pay for themselves" from tuition and fees from the very beginning (except when outside grant funds are available, and then the exception is only temporary---as long as the grant).

(3) Develop very early an understanding of the institution's policies and procedures governing program implementation and development. Learn the internal "ropes" and barriers, and how things have to be done if they are to be ultimately approved.

(4) Identify and work directly and continuously with whoever has the authority to approve programs of the sort you want, or, more usually, with someone in the institution who has the authority and personal interest to move them through the often complex internal approval structure. This is sometimes an administrator, sometimes a faculty member, sometimes someone who is both. Approval is facilitated if one works with an administrator who has the existing authority, given his/her particular role and the nature of his/her unit in the larger institution, to approve and set up the program in the given unit with little or no clearance from other members of the administration. This situation is, however, rather rare. The best examples are perhaps Divisions of Continuing Education or the equivalent, which have a very broad existing mandate.

(5) Pay careful attention to the appropriate structural location of the program within the institution. There are variations among successful programs in this respect, though most tend to locate in the most innovative unit they can find on a particular campus. The most frequent locations of successful programs are in Continuing Education, Human/Public/Social/Community Services, or in Business/Management Schools or Divisions of the institution. However successful programs are found occasionally in other units (e.g., Rehabilitation,etc.).

(6) Deal with the program's implications for related departments, schools and divisions of the institution, especially trying to counteract fears as to possible resource reallocation away from those bases/units to the new program, and corresponding fears of intrusion on their curriculum "domain." Timing is also important in this area. A volunteer administration program is more likely to be rejected when it is initiated at a time when related programs are being phased out (as happened in one of our unsuccessful cases). It may be prudent to wait a year or two at such times in order to achieve ultimate success. Informal relations in maintaining continual interest and pressure are especially important here, as are efforts to integrate curricula and to include other units or faculty in the program where they push for it.

(7) Share experiences on a statewide or regional basis with others seeking to initiate, develop, or maintain higher education programs for volunteer administrators. The California Community Colleges example mentioned earlier indicates that some substantial leverage can be obtained through statewide higher education coordinating units, especially when they contain representatives of institutions as well as practitioners. Given the nationwide trend toward developing statewide and regional coordinating boards or agencies, this source of leverage should become increasingly significant in the future. These entities help to build a power base for volunteerism in their areas, and can develop coordinated action plans to deal with educational bureaucracies that are more effective than plans coming from a single source to a single institution.

(8) It is advantageous if the key practitioner-activist has his/her principal employment in the college or university, or can at least obtain "Adjunct" or similar faculty status (which usually is dependent on the academic degrees held by such a person, a Masters Degree in something being almost mandatory). Such a person can, through long and intensive involvement within the institution, more effectively understand internal processes (formal and informal, unwritten ones) and learn how to deal with them. Otherwise, the key person must be able to develop,or have already,a close relationship to a willing faculty member or administrator currently on the staff of the institution. One cannot change or fight the system regarding a new program without effective internal leverage.

(9) However, if the faculty member or administrator in the institution is not active and experienced in voluntary action leadership himself/herself, the chances of success are diminished when such persons are the initiators or internal collaborators. They are much less likely to have the emotional commitments and cognitive insights of voluntary sector activists, and much more likely to be conscious of more immediate priorities associated with clearer and faster payoffs (e.g., pay increments, tenure, promotion). We have a few cases in our sample where programs have been implemented by such "internal" people in response to outside requests from volunteer agency leaders. But more often than not, this approach leads to a

rejection decision, to lack of persistent development follow-through in the first place, or to a program that, once started, fails for lack of sufficient relevance to practitioner needs.

(10) If a college is responding to outside requests and pressure mainly, then such pressure is likely to be most successful when backed by a powerful and prominent local voluntary action coordinating group (e.g., a local Voluntary Action Center, or a local council of leaders of volunteer programs or human service agencies). The availablity of a convincing "market survey" or "needs identification survey" can help, as we shall note in a moment, but the key is the degree to which the institution can be convinced that there are a sufficient number of people who will definitely take the program if offered. The latter point was effectively dealt with by one group of practitioner-initiators by collecting firm commitments to pre-register in the program and then approaching the target institution for help in setting up the program they had in mind. In any case, where the real "market" or "need" for the program is misjudged seriously by the practitioners, the program is likely to fail fairly quickly for lack of sufficient enrollment. Real and continuing demand for the program is absolutely necessary in the catchment area (territory served) by the program over time if the program is to be successful and endure.

(11) Do not assume that a needs identification survey or market survey will speak for itself to institution administrators. Such surveys, whether informal or formal (and our study showed both kinds were frequent), are typically made using mailing lists provided by local Voluntary Action Centers or other coordinating bodies for local volunteer program and agencies. They usually attempt to assess the content and skills needed by potential program participants, the degree of student demand, relations to career opportunities, desirable program format, and appropriate timing, location, fees and outcomes. But the key factor appears to be not the findings themselves, rather it is how these findings are interpreted and by whom. College and university administrators not involved in voluntary action leadership tend to interpret findings in terms of what they show about full-time, paid career opportunities for volunteer administrators. Needless to say, findings interpreted in such terms do not provide much of a basis for enthusiastic support of college credit programs for volunteer administrators. This leads us directly to our next point.

(12) Base your program, and interpret your "market survey", on a very broad definition of potential student clientele which includes not only paid staff, career-oriented coordinators or directors of volunteers, but also volunteer staff in similar roles, students wishing to enter the field as a career or as volunteers, current volunteers who would like to become leaders (coordinators, directors, etc.), human service professionals who work in agencies with volunteer programs, human service professionals who work with volunteers in community contexts, stu-

dents in professional schools or divisions, grassroots activists, voluntary association leaders, and citizens interested in voluntarism generally. Few programs can be developed and sustained in the long run with a clientele defined solely as paid, career volunteer administrators. Other narrow definitions also lead to failure (e.g., members of boards of trustees or directors of voluntary organizations).

(13) The formation and use of an Advisory Board is not crucial to success, although a continuing involvement on some level with the local volunteer leadership community does seem to be quite important. Such Advisory Boards are used about half the time, but sometimes the Education/Training Committee of the local Voluntary Action Center or some other existing body is used by the program as its Advisory Board informally. These Advisory Boards, of whatever kind, tend to be effective when: (a) the key educational program person(s) is (are) heavily involved in the local volunteer community and active on and with the Board, and (b) when the Board is a genuine working board involved meaningfully in program development, publicizing the program to bring in participants, and working with the college personnel in an on-going manner to evaluate and reshape the program from year to year in the light of feedback.

(14) Finally, our data indicate that one should get something small going well, if possible, and then expand that course or set of workshops into a full-fledged program. The "foot in the door" technique works as well in academia as anywhere else. Our survey show that successful programs have developed from such varied bases as convention "institutes," workshops, student internship (off-campus service) programs, single course offerings, and courses with volunteer administration components in various related departments. Such initial efforts have provided both curriculum foundations, interested faculty, and concrete evidence of the existence of a varied student clientele for expanded programs in volunteer administration. It is rare for whole programs to begin,starting from "scratch," so to speak, without some such prior base.

PROGRAM CONTENT AND EVALUATION

Programs vary considerably in terms of the number of credit hours required, as mentioned earlier. They also vary moderatly in the breadth of the subject matter content involved. The objectives of all programs center around improving the practical effectiveness of volunteerism broadly defined. Most emphasize both effective management of volunteer programs and either social services administration or social change through volunteerism, although programs differ with respect to the mix of these two thrusts. The critical determinant seems to be the personal philosophies of the individuals running the programs.

Most programs are grounded in the notion that knowledge and skills are transferable among the various program areas of volunteer administration. Most respondents view management and human services as the core disciplines in their body of knowledge and skills. Most programs aim to raise students' awareness of the importance of volunteerism, and the self-images of volunteers and of volunteer administrators. The development of specific practical skills is viewed as fundamental in all programs. Our respondents report that experienced volunteer administrators show a consistently strong preference for skills-oriented content, especially when management-oriented (budgeting, use of time, fund-raising, mobilizing boards, recruiting volunteers, etc.). They wish to get "tools" with which to solve their day-to-day problems.

Several of our respondents insist, despite resistance from experienced students, that participants be exposed to conceptual material (e.g., management models and styles, community organization theory, group dynamics theory, political organization theory). Such respondents view the broadening of students' basic knowledge and understanding as a distinctive component of higher education programs. In programs with a broad student clientele, more emphasis is placed on the nature of volunteerism, its societal significance, and the nature of one's community. Respondents emphasize that, for all students, the subject matter content must be grounded in the realities of the particular local community.

With respect to learning methods, credit for work experience or for independent study is rare, except where the latter is the central learning mode of the program in a few instances. Some programs included a practicum, in most cases through a student volunteer program or internship placement. However, in almost all programs the emphasis is placed primarily on in-class work and learning. There, cognitive-rational content and its associated lecture approach is used in conjunction with experiential-skill practice content and its student participation approach. Most of our respondents indicate that they use, and that the students favor, such activities as problem solving, developing check-lists and manuals of practice, sharing practical problems and experiences, outside projects, agency visits, and other forms of skill-practice or experiential learning. The lecture approach seems to be used more with students new to volunteerism and who are in the early stages of their program.

Teaching is done almost entirely by full-time voluntary action practitioners or by college personnel who are very active in the volunteer community, except in the two rare instances of Master's Degree programs. In all the successful programs these teachers have a high degree of control over program content and learning methods. Most of the successful programs use a modular approach, with the larger programs containing modules covering a wide variety of topics. Many of our respondents indicate that participants tend to resist weekly two-three hour courses. We have some evidence that suggests such a format inhibits program growth. Almost all of our respondents indicate that subject matter content and learning methods must be geared to the types of students who enroll.

Most of our respondents feel that the material generally available in the volunteerism field is not adequate for course content development and for use in teaching their programs. The most widely used of existing source materials seem to be those developed by the University of Colorado at Boulder program, by NCVA, and by NICOV, along with books by Naylor (1973), Schindler-Rainman and Lippitt (1971), and Wilson (1976). Our teacher respondents rely quite heavily on material that they have developed in their own volunteer administration work and educational experience. There is a need for short, basic texts related to skill-practice for most of the content areas of teaching in this field.

Perhaps because most programs are quite new, rigorous and long-term program evaluation is very rare. Most programs are evaluated only crudely in the light of drop-out rates, enrollment trends, student evaluation feedback immediately after course completion,and general feedback from the local volunteer leadership community. Several programs have been substantially revised in the light of such information, especially more successful ones, but other programs change little as a result of such evaluation. Little data has been accumulated with respect to impact on subsequent job performance and employment opportunities. Only impressions and anecdotes are offered as evidence here. Drop-out rates are low in successful programs, but often hard to determine where the program is new and uses a modular approach not requiring completion of the program within any fixed time-period. Respondents indicate that teacher performance is the most critical factor in explaining student satisfaction or drop-outs. Other important factors include failure of participants to be offered the specific skills they want, moving from the locality, leaving the volunteerism field, inability to adjust to a higher education learning context many years after leaving it, or personal tensions that develop in social change components of some programs.

SOME FURTHER IMPLICATIONS

While education in volunteer administration at the college level is quite new, much is happening. The field is expanding and is characterized by much change. It has not yet had a major impact in higher education, but the foundations are being laid. Much can be learned from this on-going series of developments, as we have tried to show in this paper. No one approach can be characterized as optimal, and the diversity within the voluntary sector is reflected in program diversity within higher education institutions. Individual program success depends upon a careful meshing of clientele, program content, instructors, program administration, approaches to learning, and the presence of one or more key practitioner-activists able to integrate this package with the mission of a specific institution of higher education.

As a field in process, we expect great diversity to characterize higher education for volunteer administrators for a considerable time into the future. Overall development of the field needs to be monitored, and information shared, at the national level. There is a need for more leadership (based on objective study and analysis of on-going experience) at the national level in generating guidelines and encouraging action at the community level. Ideas and activity need to be coordinated at state and regional levels as well, especially in helping to get programs developed and implemented, to facilitate collaboration among institutions (we have found examples of destructive competition among institutions in a locality), and to encourage movement of programs into some universities once a solid base has been established in community or four-year colleges.

The higher education experience has general implications for the professionalization of the field of volunteer administration. It is clear from the history of professionalization in other fields that this process is ultimately grounded in advances in higher education. Hence, the expansion of higher education programs for volunteer administrators augurs well for professionalization (in the sense of high competence and specialized knowledge and skills) in this field. Practitioners and activists have substantial control over setting up programs and teaching in them.

Yet there are some important complications. We are unable to identify a knowledge base currently adequate for a relatively independent profession. Many educational programs are not oriented exclusively or even primarily to career-oriented volunteer administrators. To be successful, most programs must cater to a much broader clientele. However, this implies that such programs will be unable to satisfy the perceived needs of professionally oriented career volunteer administrators.

The experience of other occupational groups indicates that professionalization is facilitated by locating educational programs in universities rather than in two-year institutions, and that the outcome should be a degree, preferably a higher degree. Our data indicate that such programs are unlikely to be widespread in the foreseeable future. Therefore, the best strategy for groups committed to professionalization of volunteer administration as a career would appear to be to (a) encourage regional institutions offering degrees through innovative delivery systems, including external degree programs, for experienced persons; and (b) encourage universities in or near very large population centers to offer degree programs, especially at the Master's Degree level.

We are troubled by the weakness of the knowledge base underlying educational programs in volunteer administration.

In particular, while management and human services administration are widely viewed as the core disciplines involved in program content, there exists very little scientific knowledge about volunteer program management either in terms of theory or empirical research. The great bulk of what is taught in the programs we have considered is either based on accumulated practical experience whose transferability to other contexts by other persons is untested, or else on the adaptation of accumulated knowledge and principles from other areas of management and administration without validation in the volunteer administration context. Universities with advanced educational and research programs should assume a much greater role in conducting and stimulating research into volunteer administration. At present, this is a sadly missing component in the total American educational enterprise. Thirty years ago, in the face of the inadequacy of the knowledge base underlying university education in business administration and management, two national studies were conducted. These led to the transformation of that knowledge base and of higher education in business management itself. It may well be time for a similar move to advance higher education for volunteer administration.

Finally, we need substantial research into the nature of training and education for volunteer administration itself. There is too little systematic sharing of on-going experience, and a dearth of careful empirical and comparative studies. Also, recommendations and proposals for educational programs in this field are generated usually without adequate understanding of actual program experience elsewhere. It would be useful to have carefully developed, widely disseminated case studies of present and past higher-educational programs in volunteer administration. Our own pilot study is no substitute for the latter. And given that the higher education situation is changing in America so rapidly, an extensive, well-funded, comparative research study of higher education for volunteer administration would be very valuable if conducted over a several year period beginning in a year or two.

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RECOMMENDATIONS FROM CURRICULA INTEREST AREAS

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Conference participants met together in curricula interest areas to explore the implications of the papers for their specific university responsibility of teaching, research, or extension. The three curricula interest areas were: (1) social services, (2) 4-H and youth development, and (3) education. At the plenary session on Thursday afternoon, a representative from each area presented a summary of the group's discussion and recommendations. Dr. Courtney Schwertz chaired the session. The reports, with minor editing, are reproduced below as presented in the plenary session.

Education: Presented by Kathryn Treat

Basically, our group represented people in adult education and cooperative extension representing a number of fields, we had community college people, and so on. And as you can expect, there was considerable diversity within the group - we had some very stimulating discussions throughout the week. We really spoke our mind as we tried to categorize and pull our ideas together. We felt that they basically dealt with the three major functions that we see of a land grant university and I think that this is true of many other private groups and universities too. Most of our ideas fell under the areas of research, teaching, and service. I will give you a few of those that we discussed under these areas and some we did take the time to go into more depth about.

In relation to research, we were concerned about research areas such as motivation of volunteers and seeking the need for more information and research in this area. We were concerned about the role of the university - whether it is a land grant or other and how universities view volunteerism. We were concerned about evaluation of volunteer programs, a reflection of hearing a variety of research designs. We felt that there could be more support in relation to designing research programs. We also talked about defining concepts and terms. We felt that there was a need for more information in the area of conceptualization. Those were just some of the things in research. We did agree on a number of areas of needed research and then we got off on talking about how do we promote research, because we felt that was a major concern as we went back to our own universities and colleges.

Under the teaching area, we discussed items such as how does the university prepare students to be volunteer managers, and particularly we got into what was some of the differences about volunteer managers, what are some of the possible curriculum areas - do we really have a curriculum for volunteer managers?

We talked about implications for the job market in relation to teaching - do college faculty use volunteer experience in relation to helping young people prepare for jobs? We also talked about training models considerably, and how do we help people who will be volunteer managers implement training models for volunteers?

Under the area of service, we primarily talked about again some implications for the job market. What is the universities role in relation to the community in promoting volunteerism. We discussed at considerable length the concept of status quo versus change. How does the university promote volunteerism and what kind of volunteer activities do they sanction? That got us into a great deal of discussion and controversy in those areas. We did come up with some recommendations as we looked at the ideas that we have talked about in the last few days from areas that we felt could be recommendations. The first one was in terms of developing university task forces within university systems, and a way to resolve or look at problems in relation to volunteerism, i.e., to make the university community more aware of the interdisciplinary nature of volunteerism, to draw upon many university faculty together as a task force to focus ideas, and to look at volunteerism and to bring together theory and practice from many fields.

I think basically we saw each of us representing different kinds of university systems and felt that it was a need to go back to our own universities and plant the seeds for this particular idea. We also felt a need and recommendation in terms of delineation of the university's responsibility for trainees. Just what is the responsibility of the university for training professionals for volunteerism, both in the graduate and undergraduate level. In relation to this we had some community college representatives talking about the role of the community college and how do we provide a linkage system from the university level where there is a state or land grant university down to the community college level and what are the responsibilities of these areas? We also discussed and talked about the recommendations as seeing the major role of the university as a facilitator to provide the linkages between teaching and research for theoretical levels to the practical levels and seeing extension, continuing education, and community colleges as an intermediate link and then getting down to the field level. We saw this as a real need to have some way of facilitating, to bring together theory orientation and the practitioner, and the need for some systems in order to implement that. And we finally discussed this morning the challenge in terms of the ideas that have come together here this week in bringing together theory and practice and the ideas of translating knowledge, making it acceptable to field workers, and we saw a real challenge in this particular area.

4-H and Youth Development: Presented by Phylis Stout

We came to this conference with a variety of backgrounds and work situations even though all of us were in cooperative extension and concerned with youth programs, but certainly there was a diversity of backgrounds in the group.

We had our agreements and we had our disagreements as you can expect. All I am really going to report to you on are the areas in which we had some agreement. I suspect we each are going home with a set of notes and if we were to compare the notes they probably would not agree. So this is the thing that we basically reached agreement on. One was the interaction with people from other situations and other agencies (the opportunities we have had in this conference) have been stimulating and I think that we each have felt that we have gotten some new ideas from the presentations. We did agree that the land grant university does have a role in providing curricula for volunteers and people who work with volunteers, but this would vary from state to state and each institution would have to set up its own priorities if it has not already done so. We do think that we do need to develop curriculums for the various audiences that are involved such as the administrator, the manager, or agents, if you want to use the extension terminology, and volunteers. The content will vary but there will be some general areas applicable to all. However, these will need to be tailored to specific audiences. There will be overlapping but we will have to tailor to the particular audience. We feel the content can be delivered either in formal or informal situations and for credit or without credit. I think we have reaffirmed that volunteers are very important and essential in the carrying-out of a program. We did look at several models and had a large amount of discussion on them - I am not sure we came to any agreement except that we should look at various kinds of models and I think we kind of ended up on the note that we have just made a beginning and that this has been a positive experience. A great deal more of work needs to be done.

Social Services: Presented by Donna Lavins

There seems to be a continum here from agreement from in-between to extreme disagreement and that's what our group was. We are all of the social sciences, we were of a hodgepodge of the left-overs from all of the other groups. We had sociologists, anthropologists, psychologists, educational administrators; we had volunteers and we tried to find an essential area - a focus. What we ended up talking about was philosophy. Hence, this is going to raise some questions for all of us.

We started out with Jon Van Til talking about volunteerism as being a social movement and the fact that the social movement is now identifying a series of curriculums, a series of professional certificates, a series of associations, a series of affiliations, a series of philosophies to support its existence. Not only is it a social movement, but it is an increasingly large interest within the United States and has a very large population affiliated with it and there is potential that the volunteer movement is growing. The question that we as volunteer administrators, or people working in the volunteer movement, have to deal with is: Are we in fact having any effect on the economy? Is that a good effect? Is that a negative effect? Are we in fact preparing volunteers to fill positions that should be filled by paid personnel? I think it is something that we have to be cognizant of and conscious of in developing our own programs. That is how we started our discussion.

We tried to reach agreement in terms of the long-range aspects of volunteerism and what we would have to look for. What does it mean to the volunteer and what are the values that we can define as being necessary in volunteerism and the concepts of a student? For example, personal development, job preparation is important and the effect on the community is important. We also talked about the reciprocality between the deliverer of the services (the volunteer) and the recipient of the services, each fulfilling certainly a very important part of the relation between those two actors. This is going to be a little bit difficult to summarize, but basically the volunteer benefits are: There is direct and indirect personal contact with people, a person gains experience, there is a way of self-expression, a person gains skills, self-esteem, recreation and a number of other basic human needs. For the recipient of services (and this is very limited, obviously) the client receives services, indirect or direct services, support, attention, learns and often teaches the volunteer. I think that we have to remember that in every volunteer position there are two actors and that we really have to realize that when you are doing something good, you are doing something good for yourself as well as for the person that is receiving the services. We decided that we need more study in terms of the effect on the economy. We need more study in terms of whether it is appropriate to have a professional institution of volunteers. Is it appropriate to have graduate studies for volunteer administrators? That was a question that was raised and we certainly did not resolve it at all. There are pros and cons to both issues. A large percentage of the group, I think, believed that it was more appropriate to work with existing graduate programs and supplement that with more volunteer kinds of philosophies, research, administrative management kinds of courses so that there would be (maybe in public administration or community services) a focus of volunteerism.

We talked about clearing houses within the university. There was some dissention as to whether it was appropriate for one central body within the university to maintain a clearing house function throughout the university or whether it's better to be sort of decentralized and controlled by various groups, perhaps academic groups and dean of students and administrative offices. There are pro and cons to that issue as well. The clearing house is seen as a way to avoid duplication and repetition in developing volunteer positions in certain evaluation techniques, and in contact with community groups. The question of control of each of those sections has to be dealt with at the university level. For example, political scientists would probably not encourage the students to earn credit through anthropology if the internship program, or volunteer program, was very relevant to political science. So, obviously, there are certain areas of expertise in the university and you have to relate those areas of expertise to the programs that you are working on in the clearing house. The decentralized model was discussed as being appropriate for specializations. Psychology should certainly have a lot of control over students who are working in clinical programs. (Additional comments by Margie follow.)

A couple of ideas that stuck in my mind were Mr. Van Til's statements that a concern of institutionalizing or over institutionalizing might destroy the spontaneity of volunteerism could perhaps change the motivation, the internal reward structure that has been the basis of our volunteer experience. We too discussed the differences between experiential learning and what we have called voluntary action. We talked about it as a volunteer experience incorporated into the classroom and giving credit is the same thing as voluntary action. We thought that working for credit turns it into a different entity, although very valuable, but it is not the same thing at this point. We are working for a different motivation and a different reward. I guess those are two ideas that stuck in my mind.

One other concept we talked about in relation to the clearing house function and this is, "Is there actually a commitment of the university to the community?" It is a good question because what you find is that the students themselves are usually the ones who are really relating to the volunteer agencies and the volunteer network. Often the university, the faculty, and the physical resources of the university are not being utilized by the volunteer sector, by the clients and if, in fact, our volunteer services and our internship programs are to promote better communication between the community and university, then there would be a deeper commitment between the university and the community in terms of getting the faculty out into the community, in terms of having the faculty look and see what the students are doing within the community, or bringing in some of the teenage groups or senior citizens to utilize some of the resources in the university.

CLOSING COMMENTS

FUTURE FOR COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES IN VOLUNTEERISM

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Future Ho

Attempting to divine the future of the Volunteer movement in the United States is as difficult and complex as trying to predict the status of economic and social conditions in the United States. A prerequisite to the question of where one might go is, of course, to know where one is. Not to engage in such a status assessment is to be put in the position of a pilot whose navigational equipment has failed and reports to the passengers, "We're not sure where we are or where we're going, but I can report that we're making good time."

This conference and others like it represent an attempt to look at "what is"—the state of the art from which we might extrapolate "what might be."

My personal, non-data based, "gut reaction" is that we've only seen the "tip of the iceberg" regarding the future of volunteer participation in our society. For that matter, we may only be able to see the tip of that same iceberg in assessing volunteer contributions today. Given the assumption that people-power constitutes a nation's most valuable national resource, it is not only popular but incumbent on all of us to utilize that resource to its fullest potential.

If I have concerns about the value of such a conference as this, they are:

(1) While appropriate for colleges and universities to discuss the past, present and future of volunteerism and the colleges'/universities' role in that movement; too often I am impressed that we are engaged in one-way and therefore meaningless "communication."

At the outset of this particular conference, over 80% of the conferees pre-registered were college and university personnel. With fewer than one in five of the participants representing the agencies which utilize volunteer services, I am concerned that we talk only among ourselves about how the "world ought to be" and don't receive sufficient input about "how the world really is."

(2) I am concerned too, that we have, through our higher education preoccupation on publish, present and perform, developed an environment where we have too many talkers and not enough listeners. There were listed more authors and co-authors of papers at the beginning of this conference than there were participants. When we find ourselves with 3-4 papers to be read to an audience smaller than the presenters, I'm dubious about whether we accomplish much dissemination of ideas.

(3) Lastly, I am concerned about the potential harm of over-organizing, institutionalizing and quantifying an idea which is based upon the very uniqueness of the individual, the organization and the peculiar individual motivation which creates something called "volunteering."

In attempting to anticipate the future of volunteer activity in our society, I have consciously attempted not to become expert or well-read in the field, believing that most futures are not planned and that large numbers of good ideas have been generated spontaneously and quite often as a result of some unplanned (should I say, unpredictable) occurrence.

What data I have confirms that our human resource base, when measured by people-time available, will increase dramatically in the future--exponentially not arithmetically, given (1) fewer children whom we keep occupied by "cold storage function" of schools and other time-consuming activities, (2) more people, (3) longer life span, and (4) fewer hours devoted to income-producing activities.

I would submit to you also that the larger percentage of volunteer workers will not be engaged in major community or institutionally coordinated activities. The clergyman, scout leader, school principal and civic organizations will continue to be responsible for attracting the largest numbers and percentages of volunteers.

When I reviewed my own experience as a volunteer over the past year, I came up with the following:

100 hours - chairman of sub-committee to determine the feasibility of Blacksburg's becoming a city;
50 hours - high school track team--driving, timing;
20 hours - Radford track meet;
10 hours - merit badge counselor - Boy Scouts
5 hours - selling Christmas trees - Boosters Club

These experiences provided me with some interesting insights about the volunteer and his/her attitudes which don't necessarily fit the assumptions or models developed and presented in the Rainman and Lippitt book. My motivation varied across the entire spectrum, ranging from:

INTEREST - desire to make a contribution,
WILLINGNESS - I was going to be around anyway,
PITY - They need someone to help,
RESENTMENT - (a) Previous commitment made on quid pro quo basis but something I hadn't unhooked from,
(b) You owe us because . . .

None of these involvements came about because of a formal structure, and to be quite honest, those formal units which solicit, recruit, train and coordinate volunteers don't turn me on.

The diverse problems facing unclassified "recruiters" are of the type I think we need to address in our next round of considerations. The process is not nearly so neat and clean as we might make it in our institutionalized, flow-charted and planned models.

The Priest of St. Mary's Church, for example, depends on 200± hours of volunteer work weekly. Although that work, in part, may depend upon all of those ingredients outlined in good theory, e.g. planned recruitment, training, feedback, feeling of contribution, etc., in large measure the continuation of the volunteer's service may well depend more on the individual's personal notion of or perception of his/her contribution as a Christian charity or, unfortunately perhaps, the length and content of the weekly sermon.

Such relationships are drawn simply to indicate that there are likely too few truths which may be generalized to the volunteer process. To look for them may be an interesting academic exercise; to presume that we have found them may be foolhardy.

What I am trying to say quite simply is that VISTA and other programs of national scope may lend themselves to modeling; local institutions (especially single purpose) may be able to utilize effective practices which can be implemented over time in a systematic fashion, but the large consumer--the small, one-person operation, which constantly changes its needs and client groups, will likely find that only a few of the principles of "big business" apply.

I could go on to tell you numerous success stories about effective use of volunteers in public school programs, (I was disappointed that there were no papers presented on that topic since there are 50,000 school facilities enrolling 40 million ± children touching entire communities) but will not bore you. I have left copies of the Newsletter to Volunteers produced this week by the principal at Harding Avenue School, who is responsible for recruiting over 100 adults contributing nearly 1000 hours of volunteer time to that 500-student school each month. For those of you who might be interested in the specifics of volunteer programs/opportunities in the schools, I would refer you to Jerry Abbott's book, The Teacher and His Staff, published by Prentice-Hall.

Well, for what it's worth, that's how one man sees the volunteer movement, with a little past, present and future all mixed up. In spite of the concerns expressed about the possibility of colleges and universities fouling up a good idea (we've done that before), I am convinced that there are meaningful contributions we might make:

(1) We need to talk more with consumers--especially the small units who will continue to use the greatest percent of all volunteers.

(2) We need to find out what, if anything, we can do to help them run and manage effective volunteer programs.

(3) We need to develop short, simple, easily accessible, self-paced learning modules designed around specific tasks faced by the volunteer manager.

(4) We need to consider the development of training programs to prepare trainers of trainees. In education, for example, we have found that

some senior students find out too late that they simply don't like kids. Having invested three + years, they don't always drop out--since another degree requires additional courses, and besides, the experience may have been atypical. At present it is impossible for a student to graduate in education without certification. Having other social service options available would be extremely desirable both for the college student and the public school students.

Ample opportunities are available for preparing such a person to serve as a coordinator of volunteer services. From a cost-benefit viewpoint, most school boards would welcome the opportunity to recruit such an individual; especially when the expenditure of funds at a rate comparable to one teacher may have the effect of increasing the staffing equivalency available to a school by 30% or more. Evidence does exist which shows the improvement in attitude, performance and attendance in schools when the adult/student ratio is improved.

Certainly, there are other opportunities to contribute to the volunteer movement. Consultant, service, training programs, and research are all required, but certainly with some attention to the limitations and real-world conditions in which the volunteer functions. We will see more writing and more conferences, more modeling and more evaluating. I would submit that the most important research to be accomplished is the development of adequate and accurate base-line data, descriptions of programs and the unique condition surrounding those programs which have made them work or made them fail.

There is need to improve horizontal communication, such that ideas flow from university to another, in order that research findings and promising practices are communicated. There is greater need, in my judgement, to attend to vertical communication--bridging the gap between theory and practice--communicating effectively with the large group of users in order that their techniques may be improved and that we may know about what works and what doesn't.

We must be careful not to expend all of our energy in the former activity--building, designing, operating and maintaining the research and publications network, leaving insufficient time to develop the effective dissemination network.

All of these opportunities and challenges face us now and in the future. Future ho, indeed! The future is now, and it is us.